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# THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN

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CONTRIBUTING EDITORS

This Issue

DR. WILLARD W. PATTY
Director of Physical Welfare Training
Department
Indiana University

JESSE FEIRING WILLIAMS, M.D.
Professor of Physical Education
Teachers College, Columbia University

DR. EARLE RUGG
Professor of Education
Colorado State College of Education

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# THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN

VOL. XIX FEBRUARY-MARCH, 1937 Nos. 6-7

## Editorial Comment

### HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND THE EDUCATOR

WHAT does the term "Health and Physical Education" mean to the school administrator? Does he accept it as an established phrase in educational literature or does it signify to him an important and growing phase of his school program?

To the discriminating educator, "Health and Physical Education" means three major parts of a closely coordinated program: first, health service, second, health education, and third, physical education.

It has been encouraging to note during recent years that school administrators are planning to put real meaning into each of the seven generally accepted objectives of education, some of which have been neglected heretofore. We refer to the well-known fact that we have been giving great prominence to health and worthy use of leisure time in enumerating the objectives of education. An acceptable modern physical-education program undoubtedly makes a positive contribution to the health of the participating individual. It is, of course, obvious that a satisfactory health-education and health-service program in a school system contributes to the realization of the health objective. Only the extremely biased physical educator would claim, when we speak of the worthy use of leisure time, that we mean only those types of activity to which the modern physical-education program contributes. Undoubtedly, the worthy use of leisure time includes many other activities in addition to physical types of recreation.

As one reads contemporary literature regarding various phases of the education program, he is apt to be impressed by the fact that many writers attempt to present either philosophical or factual arguments tending to show that the activities in which they are interested contribute to all of the objectives of education. It surely would not seem necessary to the critical educational leader that an activity must make an outstanding contribution to all objectives of education in order to be an important element in a well-rounded school program. It is, therefore, with actual hesitancy that I suggest that a proper program of health and physical education would definitely increase the physical and mental efficiency of the individual either through preserving or improving his health status, both physical and mental, and, as a natural result, would increase his vocational efficiency. It also seems unnecessary to stress the thought that the level of one's citizenship is not general but embraces a combination of specifics. One of these specifics, or specific responsibilities, surely, is for one to be a health unit in a community, an influence toward better individual and community health. The converse of this principle would obviously be that to the extent to which a person neglects his physical or mental health and as a consequence becomes a detrimental factor in the community, either through sub-normal mental conduct or by becoming a carrier of disease or by deteriorating physically or mentally to a point of becoming socially or economically dependent, he thereby reduces, in a very definite way, his level of citizenship.

In addition to the physical and mental phases of health, those who are leaders in the field are generally recognizing moral and social health as additional aspects. Certainly when we consider health from this fourfold point of view, it is apparent that among the factors which influence the quality of home membership, health cannot be ignored.

There are many evidences today that the more courageous and progressive leaders in education are rebelling against the traditional concepts regarding our school program. They are challenging the validity of a school program based upon traditional practice as a fundamental principle. They are saying that the activities included in a

modern school program must be justified in terms of social, economic, and spiritual needs and values.

Are school programists still lagging behind actual social and economic changes with respect to providing proper time and facilities for an adequate physical- and health-education program and a satisfactory health-service program? It would appear that it is not only an opportunity but an actual professional duty for each school leader to require not only that the school program include provisions for physical-education and health-education services but that that phase of the program which we have designated as health and physical education be given its due importance as indicated by an adequate proportion of school time, proper housing and playground facilities, adequate supplies and equipment, and above all, by the employment of properly prepared teachers of physical and health education as well as doctors, dentists, nurses, and (where size of the school justifies) other specialists in the field of health services.

This special issue of PHI DELTA KAPPAN was suggested by one of our number who is not himself engaged in any way in the fields of health or physical-education service. This point in itself is significant. There is real hope that during the very near future significant changes will be brought about in our school program in order that the emphases may be proportional to their importance. Certainly health and physical-education activities and services deserve serious consideration in planning the next evolutionary steps of our growing American public-school system.

WILLARD W. PATTY

## WHAT EDUCATES?

THE Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching reports[1] the tested achievement of prospective teachers in Pennsylvania. Prospective teachers of health and physical education fare badly in the tests conducted. The report speaks critically of these professional groups, " . . . the average total scores are incredibly low and reveal at once the hollowness of any serious pretensions of these candidates to an understanding of what education is about." Acknowledgment is made of the rare opportunity for influence that teachers in these fields have. "When one considers the marvelous advantages these teachers enjoy for influential contacts under circumstances which make pupils most receptive, one is amazed at the gulf that we permit between their ideas and the goals toward which we profess to be urging the pupils. Schools would penetrate much farther into the essential task of education, if they had some of their best educated and wisest teachers at these posts."

These statements from a responsible source command attention. The report is not complete; one wishes to know the details. Are the tests comprehensive in fact? What criteria were used for the selection of the test items? But, regardless of the answers to such questions, it is still significant that such statements are made by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

The older days of physical education are recalled. They stimulate other questions. Are we in this field never to escape the ignominy of being unlettered? Will fastidiousness without wisdom always look down its nose at muscles? Is there never to be any intellectual respectability in muscular skill? Is the field to be judged only by "cultural" standards? Is the classical social inheritance all of education? But obviously the Carnegie study was not narrowly academic—or was it? In spite of a disposition to accept, doubt remains. High regard for the source stills debate—almost.

And then, Duggan's study[2] comes to mind. This investigation compares majors in physical education and non-majors with respect to interests, general information, intelligence, motor ability, and personality. Interests differed sharply in the two groups; this is to be expected. Physicians and preachers would differ likewise. In general information the non-majors were better informed in miscellaneous current activities, fine arts, literature, history and civics, but this was statistically significant in only one of the three university groups studied. In two of the three universities studied the majors and non-majors "show an almost identical intelligence score both with reference to their mean scores and with reference to the Otis norms for college students." The majors are clearly superior in motor ability; this is to be expected. In personality, the majors are superior

[1] The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. *Thirty-first Annual Report,* 1936, p. 39.

[2] Duggan, A. S. *Women Majors and Non-Majors in Physical Education.* Contribution to Education, No. 682. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1936.

in emotional stability in two of the university groups; the majors are probably more extroverted; the differences in self-sufficiency are not significant. Odenweller's study[3] on predicting the quality of teaching shows that personality has a closer relationship to quality than scholarship.

These recent studies raise important questions. They provoke more than they solve. What is education? What is it to be physically educated? What educates a man?

There will be ready acceptance of Dr. Learned's general statement that the teacher should possess "that common body of substantiated, interrelated ideas that for this age characterize the educated person." One would have some difficulty in knowing where this characterization was to take place. But generously disposed as one may be toward the substantiated ideas, one must still ask questions in order to be informed, if for no other reason. Will this common body of ideas include such concepts as, the head under water, the chop stroke, the fade-away slide, the blocking back, percussion instruments in dance, training for endurance, conditioning by exercise and diet, relation of performance to participation, the relation of skill to enjoyment, kinesthesia and postural patterns, racial forms of movement, forces that influence postures, and a countless number of similar ones?

Does this age characterize as an educated person only he who knows foreign language but buys patent medicines? He who knows language and literature but lacks vitality? He who knows vocabulary, spelling, grammar, and punctuation but fails in the simple technics of stairclimbing, walking, breathing, sitting, opening windows, carrying hand bags, and driving automobiles? He who knows mathematics but has no interests in play? He who knows history and social studies but is a dub in all sports and games?

No! The 10th century might so characterize an educated person, but not the 20th. When scholars came from all parts of Europe to sit at the feet of Abelard, rhetoric and philosophy were enough. They are not enough today. Nor can they be used as the sole criterion.

There is no disposition in these observations to condone ignorance. We want better teachers in the schools and all interested in education will support Dr. Learned's distinction between the liberal and the professional. The disposition to accept any youth who comes to the campus, the lack of discrimination that prevails in schools of education, the absence of adequate standards of selection (by which those who are to teach should promise in native equipment more than generally is requested of them)—these are clearly faults in present educational policy. But we would err as grievously if we were to ignore what President Eliot was pleased to call "the concrete and practical in education."[4]

Greek fire, simple indeed, educated a French king. Henry Adams ranged the world of culture from the Trocadero to the courts of kings, but thought his education a failure. What educates a man? Experience counts but diplomas do not testify. "Prizes may be dross, learning lumber," writes Barrie, "unless they bring you into the arena with increased understanding."[5] Obviously it is not enough to assemble the data that delight the academician. There must be more. The writer recently wrote, "It may be helpful for the generalist and specialist to remember that direction without force is a weakness just as force without direction is a strength to be avoided. To secure the essentials education must balance these."[6] What are the minima? If these can be stated by the generalist, the specialist in physical education can do likewise. From this point of vantage it seems that physical education *is* education in a man when it educates his vital powers against fatigue and for endurance, his motor skills for functional use in life either as recreational assets or as expressive tools, his interests in wholesome living and the out-of-doors, and his attitudes toward generous and friendly cooperation with others. But the task of teaching is a cooperative enterprise. Ideas substantiated by human experience, ideas related to all significant aspects of living, ideas that reflect prevailing problems in modern society—these must be the common possessions of all teachers. All teach-

[3] Odenweller, A. L. *Predicting the Quality of Teaching.* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1936.

[4] Eliot, Charles W. *The Tendency to the Concrete and Practical in Modern Education.* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1913.

[5] Barrie, J. M. *Courage.* Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1925, p. 37.

[6] Williams, J. G. "Some Essentials of Education." *Teachers College Record,* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, October, 1933, p. 21.

ers are bound by the demands of a professional task to see the whole, belong to the whole, and teach the whole. JESSE FEIRING WILLIAMS.

## EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES

NEARLY TWENTY YEARS ago Franklin Bobbitt made a statement in his pioneer book on *The Curriculum* that has loomed larger and larger in its educational ramifications in recent years; namely, "Educational experiences must take place where they can be normal. Frequently this is not at the school." A few years ago the Character Education Inquiry lent statistical support to this fundamental generalization in data correlating moral reactions of pupils with those of certain groups of adults. The correlations for five adult groups seemingly influencing pupils were respectively: (1) children with parents + .545; (2) with friends + .353; (3) with club leaders such as boy-scout masters + .137; (4) with public-school teachers + .028; and (5) with Sunday-school teachers + .002. What do these correlations mean? Certainly the correlations support the apparently more potent influence of non-school education.

What is implied? Obviously children are out of school far more than in school. True it is also that the prestige value, particularly of parents, relatives, and friends—primary groups—is more influential than the more impersonal agencies such as the school teacher.

This seeming impotence of schooling and the school teacher as compared with primary groups would not be serious if we could be assured of a positive or desirable educational and cultural program in non-school education. But there is an impressive array of research data that reveals startling de-educative and negative cultural effects of much of this non-school experience. Space permits me to cite (for the reader to check—and it is interesting evidence, too) a few studies; see particularly four books—Cressey, *The Taxi-Dance Hall;* Forman, *Our Movie-Made Children;* Minehan, *Boy and Girl Tramps in America;* and Thrasher, *The Gangs.*

What implications do such data have for teachers and teach education? Education is still dominated by the concept that the word "school" equals exactly the word, "education." Consider the typical preparation of a teacher on the high-school level. What is it? A major, possibly a minor, a scattering and a "smattering" of subject-matter in five or six other subjects (culture!) and a few education courses added. Consider the typical activity of the high-school teacher "on the job." Five classes, a study-hall assignment and perhaps (probably) a school extra-curricular activity, the latter on top of what the teacher regards as his real "job" and thus an extra "load." How then expect a teacher to know pupils, counsel with them, know their outside-the-school interests and experiences (and correlate them with schooling), visit parents and be what every adult in simple primitive communities was—*a teacher of youth.*

It is a well-known fact that certain outside-the-school activities are chiefly handicapped as possible universal cultural forces by lack of trained leadership. This is particularly true of the boy scouts and camp fire. The existence of certain groups of adolescents, now recognized partially in the programs of the C. C. C. and N. Y. A. makes it evident that school has almost ignored those youth who have left school. Yet these youth represent our less favored citizenry.

We must recognize then that the school is in competition, seemingly overwhelming competition, with outside-the-school educational and de-educational influences. Shall we continue to assume that the school is a miniature society, simplified, adapted, and purified (!) when youth (and adults) are actually educated in the realism of home, neighborhood, and community influences? Shall we make school (which means leisure) the vehicle for each person to grow in adequate interpretation of living? Can we find prepared teachers to guide youths and even adults in a truly liberal or freeing education to the end that our citizenry can move up the scale toward democratic self-education?

Only when teachers and administrators see education in the broadest sense as the crucial activity for everybody throughout life will we actually tend to realize the concept of Mr. James Truslow Adams' *American Dream.* Can one million teachers unite to make education a literal reality? Can we in Phi Delta Kappa promote our ideals of research, service, and leadership by making Bobbitt's statement our slogan, "Educational experiences must take place where they can be normal"?

EARLE RUGG.

# The Social Security Act

## Its Educational Implications, Opportunities, and Services

*By* HUGH GRANT ROWELL, M.D.

IT IS fundamentally impossible to consider the "Social Security Act" in terms of any single section. Furthermore the Act can no longer be considered alone but as part of a growing program of which, it is true, this legislation represents a markedly important portion.

Accordingly, the point of view in this article will be an interest in the relation of the Social Security Act to educational programs of any types whatever which could be or are being conducted by or under the supervision of the federal, state or local departments of education—whether alone or, as the Act apparently implies, in co-operation with other official agencies.

When this view of the situation is accepted, there arise challenges to every educator, whether specializing in health, in the education of the handicapped, or otherwise. The Act, however, seems principally intended to prevent, discover and remedy as far as feasible all types of handicaps (principally physical and social) to which the person of educable age and ability may be subjected.

H. R. 7260 of the 74th Congress, and citable as "The Social Security Act" is planned "To provide for the general welfare by establishing a system of Federal old-age benefits, and by enabling the several States to make more adequate provision for aged persons, blind persons, dependent and crippled children, maternal and child welfare, public health, and the administration of their unemployment compensation laws; to establish a Social Security Board; to raise revenue; and for other purposes."

In a bill which, strictly speaking, provides only for education in terms of opportunities for professional improvement of certain personnel and secondly through some indefinite statements about health instruction, it seems obvious that benefits to the educator are going to come to him only through his own co-operation with other groups and that even then, benefits must be indirect for the most part. Yet benefits there are.

★ *Hugh Grant Rowell is Associate General Adviser, Department of Education of the Handicapped, Teachers College, Columbia University. He is also physician to the Horace Mann School and a member of the Department of Teacher Training, New York Institute for the Education of the Blind. Dr. Rowell is a graduate of Dartmouth (1915) and received his M.D. at Harvard (1922). He became a member of Phi Delta Kappa at Columbia University in 1928.*

Analysis of the bill by Titles affords certain "leads." Title I affects grants to States for old-age assistance. Title II covers Federal old-age benefits. Title III is "Grants to States for Unemployment Compensation Administration." These three titles would seem to favor the security of family life, favor mental health, and perhaps actually affect physical health, not only of children, but of all concerned, in families involved. It is well recognized that the home has the major effect on child health. Going further, these sections are far from unfavorable in influence upon the development of suitable programs of adult education and recreation for the purposes of aiding the aged and unemployed to spend wisely the thus created leisure time. It is granted no such idea was in the minds of the sponsors of the bill. Fertile soil is, however, created through the above very practical means of promoting mental and physical health.

Title IV is "Grants to States for Aid to Dependent Children." This section obviously affects the socially handicapped children and is of value and importance to those dealing with them—perhaps in an educational manner, after all. Health benefits, again, are indirect and by implication, being assumed as part of any general program.

Title V is "Grants to States for Maternal and

Child Welfare." This section is under the administrative control of the Secretary of Labor but is intended, apparently, to be operated under the Children's Bureau. The phrase "and other services and care" would seem to admit about as broad an interpretation as the controlling Federal agency chose to make. Interpretation, in actual practice, seems to be made on the advice of an outstanding advisory committee.

Title VI, "Public Health Work," is very broad in scope and is administered by the United States Public Health Service.

Other sections are: Title VII, "The Social Security Board"; Title VIII, "Taxes With Respect to Employment"; and Title IX, "Tax on Employers of Eight or More." Title X is "Grants to States for Aid to the Blind." Title XI is "General Provisions."

Examination of Federal funds budgeted for the various services under the Act, as of February 15, 1937, reveal that each state and territory can have certain sums with the following apparent exceptions:

*Fund B, Maternal and child-health services*—Illinois, Indiana, Nebraska (available but not budgeted), Pennsylvania (available but not budgeted).

*Services for crippled children*—available in all cases but not budgeted in the following: Arkansas, Connecticut, Delaware, Louisiana, Nevada, Oregon. Covers 42 states, Alaska, Hawaii, and District of Columbia.

*Child-welfare service*—available in all cases but not budgeted in the following: Alaska, Hawaii, Mississippi, New York, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Wyoming.

The total sums available for 1937 amount to $4,546,011.18.

In summary, in matters of possible specific interest to the educator, the Act covers certain socially handicapped adults and children, the crippled and the blind, plus child welfare and public health. The Children's Bureau Advisory Committee on Service for Crippled Children has discussed the question of definition but has not yet decided the types of disability for which services should be provided. However, the committee has recommended that children whose chief disability is incurable blindness, deafness, or mental defect, and those having abnormalities requiring permanent custodial care should be considered beyond the scope of this program. For the present the definitions now existing in the laws of various States seem to be accepted for the present as those for the term "crippled children."

Effects of value to the educator, arising from the Social Security Act seem to be:

1. Security of the home.

2. Promotion and conservation of child health directly. Also indirectly (yet directly) through the promotion and conservation of maternal health. Depending on one's personal definition of the terms "health education" and "health instruction," varying degrees of implied and actual service are provided here.

3. Security for the blind—a group of great educational importance to whom mental and physical health are fundamental.

4. Certain medical and rehabilitation services. Here relation to services from various vocational and rehabilitation acts must be remembered. Rightly or wrongly, the trend has always seemed to be to provide medical and rehabilitation services first. Likewise, in dealing with most types of the handicapped, stress seems to have been laid more heavily (and possibly erroneously) on teaching the individual (the child, in particular) how to earn a living rather than, first of all, teaching him how to live abundantly. Since placement has been less easy than training, this latter philosophy of teaching the child first how to live has real merit. Included, obviously, is teaching the child how to secure and maintain optimum health.

5. Certain educational services in terms of professional improvement of program personnel.

Benefits to education would seem to come through:

1. Better health and better morale of pupils, the latter or perhaps both affecting disciplinary problems among other things.

2. Certain rehabilitation services beyond the financial power of ordinary educational programs to provide.

3. Medical and other technical services to school children which, in the case of the handicapped, the educator might have to provide, otherwise, through his own budget.

The indirect advantage then is permitting the educator to turn funds from these particular channels to others—during the period the Act is in

force, and subject to legal interpretations. This particular point seems to have been the most productive force in the Act, to the educator.

As will be discussed later, the picture presented as a result of the Social Security Act and the Vocational Act is off balance, inasmuch as funds are not provided for direct education of certain of the groups benefited by the Act. Remedy for this is being made available through S. 1634* of the First Session of the 75th Congress, introduced by Senator Pepper, read twice, and, at this writing, in the hands of the Committee on Education and Labor, with whom it is suggested that those favoring the Bill communicate at the earliest possible moment. Discussion of this Bill will be found later in this article.

Titles V and VI of the Social Security Act, from the point of view of this article, are the most important. The former consists of Part I—Maternal and Child Health Services; Part II—Services for Crippled Children; and Part III, Child-Welfare Service—all administered under the auspices of the Children's Bureau. Part IV extends, continues and strengthens programs for the "promotion of vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise and their return to civil employment" and appropriations are made for the fiscal years of 1936 and 1937 to "the Federal agency authorized to administer it."

Title VI, Public Health Work, is "For the purpose of assisting States, counties, health districts, and other political subdivisions of the States in establishing and maintaining adequate public-health services, including the training of personnel for State and local health work . . . ." Permissible investigations specified are those "of disease and problems of sanitation."

Under Maternal and Child-Health Services permitted by Title V and administered under the Children's Bureau, State plans were submitted and 49 were in operation by June 30, 1936. Designated State agencies administered and supervised the State programs and there was further work through local units. Field consultants from the Children's Bureau supplemented State personnel. Plans were varied since health needs and health facilities differed among the States. Emphasis was placed on the development of certain minimal health facilities for mothers and children otherwise unable to procure such services.

Among special services in the programs were: (1) Public health nursing under State plans; (2) Nutrition programs in State plans; (3) Education programs in State plans, though these were for purposes of staff training of physicians and nurses; (4) Obstetric lectures, for the benefit of the general practitioner; (5) Pediatric lectures for physicians and nurses.

Notable in the report on (5) is "definite plans are being made in many States for education of the public, students, and school children in child health and maternal care. Physicians, nurses, and other professional leaders will take part in these programs."

Of equal interest is (6) a statement in regard to Dental-Hygiene and Health Education Programs in State Plans: "The State plans for maternal and child-health services include in many instances provision for dentists, dental hygienists, and health educators. A number of the States are appointing to the staffs of their maternal and child-health divisions physicians who will consult with the department of public instruction in matters affecting the health of school children, and especially regarding the curriculum of health education in teacher-training courses and school textbooks. Obviously the success of such a program will depend on the professional ability, personality, and adaptability of the physicians or other professional workers appointed."

(7) Covers Demonstration Services under States Plans and covers maternal-health education; prenatal, delivery, and postpartum nursing care; special nutrition or dental programs; and child health projects with special groups of children or groups in special need. Such demonstrations include the mobile tuberculosis unit of Arizona, demonstrations in maternal and child health among Mexicans and migratory agricultural workers in California, a dental hygiene program in Indiana in which the State Dental Association co-operates, an obstetrical program among Negroes in Maryland and a highly developed generalized health program for Indian children in Oklahoma.

Perhaps the most significant point of view in this whole section of the program is the recognition that able physicians of proper personality and

* See page 171 for brief résumé of the bill.

adaptability will have to be attracted to programs involving health education. It will be necessary for educators as a group, in the not distant future, to take positive steps toward meeting this lack. The supply of other specialists seems ample, in terms of persons available or as prospects for training. Equally significant is the recognition of the broad scope and wide possibilities of programs of health instruction and their value as an adjunct to professional services.

The child-welfare programs appear to aim at the preservation of the home and the recognition that no substitute for it exists. Likewise an attempt is made to increase the "content of our conception of what constitutes child welfare."

Ever-progressive Alabama was the first State to have its program in this field (child welfare) approved. Viewed nationally this angle of the Social Security Program has been the slowest to take form. Funds are being used to fill gaps in State programs rather than to support previously existing services in any State. The *individual* child is the point of attack. Since the understanding of the socially-handicapped and their problems is minimal as yet and since this group is by far the largest to be considered in dealing with the handicapped, slow progress must be expected—and, indeed, approved.

Of greatest interest and importance to the educator is the program under Title V, part 2—services for crippled children. As elsewhere in the education of the handicapped, there is still a need for additional facilities of all sorts as well as for highly-trained additional teachers for new projects and replacement personnel to take care of vacancies left by workers who retire after years of fruitful service.

In view of existing sentiment, the Act might more wisely have considered the physically handicapped as a group. However it seems the intent was to define the term "crippled" broadly. Senate Bill 1634 provides for the physically handicapped as a group, "in equitable distribution"—"between rural and urban areas and among the various types of physically handicapped children." The proper interpretation of the term "crippled," in the Social Security Act would be similar, in the writer's opinion.

In the Act, the official State agency to administer the "crippled child" program was left undesignated. The following is the present distribution, in terms of official State and Territorial agencies:

| | |
|---|---|
| State department of health | 20 |
| State department of public welfare | 13 |
| State department of education | 4 |
| State crippled children's commission | 7 |
| State university hospital | 2 |

In the first program approved, again that of Alabama, the State department of education was the selected agency. The work has been outstanding.

A committee of State and Territorial Health Officers advising the Children's Bureau proposed the following "crippled" program; when the State department of health is administering agency:

1. Diagnostic clinics and hospital care under a physician who should be experienced in the care of crippled children.

2. A division or bureau for services for crippled children, directed by qualified personnel.

3. A general advisory committee representing interested agencies.

4. A technical committee on medical, surgical and hospital procedures.

5. In addition to (3) and (4), other co-operative measures such as with State and local departments of educations in locating crippled children, co-operation with State and local child-welfare services to insure inclusion of these services in the program, co-operation with State and local vocational-rehabilitation services in providing training facilities, and any other feasible co-operation.

6. Provision of proper record system, professional improvement programs for personnel, participation of local health personnel, reporting of injuries to the newborn and also of congenital malformations, preventive programs for conditions leading to crippling, publication of material to educate the medical profession and the public regarding the causes and prevention of crippling, the establishment of consultation and special laboratory services during certain epidemics, the establishment of standards of qualifications for professional personnel and also for standards for hospital care for crippled children.

7. Where other agencies administer the program, the State health department should act in co-operation with the official agency and be pre-

pared to advise and co-operate in respect to the points listed above.

The so-called "Advisory Committee on Services for Crippled Children," as stated earlier, proposed a possible temporary definition for the term "crippled," made certain suggestions as to the mechanism of administering the programs, and set up professional standards for personnel, these being fundamentally those of an approved and existing professional organization. Standards for hospitals and medical fees were stated.

Enumeration of crippled children has always been stressed. Apparently Florida and Colorado have done outstanding work under the Act. Diagnostic clinics and hospitals have had the support of many service organizations. The after-care of the crippled child seems less satisfactorily organized and it is logical that here is a place where the special class and the special school or institution must be placed in the picture very definitely. It must be recognized, however, that there is considerable debate as to whether "spastics" are best educated with other types of cripples and there is a definite preferred practice established of keeping one type of handicapped as an educational unit (special class or school) whenever the child can not work satisfactorily in a group of normals. Wisconsin, apparently, is expanding its system of orthopedic schools and arranging for the payment of board of children from such distances as require special housing. Maine, with less evident interest in the educational angle, provides for after-care at home and in boarding homes near hospital centers.

In Alabama, the State crippled-children's service and the vocational-rehabilitation service are both under the State department of education and "exchange information in an effort to provide partially restored children with well-planned vocational training."

In spite of all of the above, in the examination of the section of the Social Security Act, it is evident that education was not particularly in mind but rather what might be termed broadly "health service" or other aids having educational value but not operated in or by schools.

That the advisory group had in mind the important relationship of the educator to the whole program is shown not only by certain health instruction interpretations but also by the second section of Item E, second report, which states "The Children's Bureau should include on its agenda, for future discussion by the Advisory Committee, the relation of educational service to medical and other services for crippled children."

To the educator, it seems obvious that the provisions of the Social Security Act require supplementing—or else broader interpretation. Supplementing may be the wiser course in view of the existence of a Federal office of education, not considered in the existing Act. In connection with the crippled-child section of the Act, great additional force can be given to the program through Senate bill 1634, previously mentioned, the provisions of which are ably summarized by Miss Hazel C. McIntire, Director, Special Classes, State Department of Education, Columbus, Ohio, in an article in *The Crippled Child,* February, 1937.

The sum of nine millions would be distributed on the basis of the ratio of inhabitants of each state, aged 5-20, to the total number of inhabitants of the same age range in the United States. One-half million of the sum is proposed for the Office of Education of the United States for the purposes of execution and administration of the Act, providing necessary personnel and expenses for this purpose, and for making necessary studies.

Each State receives an outright grant of forty thousand dollars "to establish, extend and improve services for educating physically handicapped children especially in rural areas." Federal funds beyond this must be matched. From the formula noted above (population ratio) the sum possible for any State is easily determined.

The Office of Education must approve of all plans which must (to quote McIntire):

(1) Provide information on the number of physically handicapped children in the state.

(2) Provide for financial participation by the state (i. e., matching federal money).

(3) Provide for the administration of the State Plan by the State Department of Education or Public Instruction.

(4) Provide for such methods of administration as are necessary for efficient operation.

(5) Provide reports requested by the Commissioner of Education.

(6) Provide for the carrying out of the education of physically handicapped children as an integral part of the state program of public instruction.

(7) Provide for the equitable distribution of funds between rural and urban areas; and among types of children to be served.

(8) Provide for co-operation with other agencies within the state charged with responsibility for services for physically handicapped children.

This bill (S. 1634) originated in the International Society for Crippled Children. However, at their last convention it was felt that the united front of all groups was preferable as all types of physical defectives have highly specialized and expensive needs requiring teachers of a high degree of experience and training in the area and also, frequently, requiring highly specialized equipment. The Special Legislative Committee is highly representative of all fields and angles. The bill, as finally presented to the Senate, is believed very definitely to bridge the gap left between the Social Security Act and the Vocational Rehabilitation Act, both of which are in successful operation.

Judging by informal conferences with many persons active in connection with this bill, the prospective administration seems to assume that the federal Office of Education will be working in a high degree of co-operation with the State Departments of Education; also, that there will be a high degree of co-operation with existing agencies dealing with the handicapped; and definite stressing of high standards of training and work.

It seems well recognized that the educational programs must not be put into action too rapidly, with resulting ill-planned units, half-trained teachers, uninformed parents and public, improperly selected equipment, and wastage all around. The need for exceptionally good professional training for the teacher of any type of the handicapped is not too well realized. She should be, first of all, thoroughly versed in the education of normal children and preferably with several years' practical experience in it. It is doubtful, furthermore, if it is wise to put a new teacher in charge of a class for any type of handicapped children who has not had at least a year of combined and continuous theoretical and practical training at some well-established center. Where a dual situation exists, as in the deaf-oral classes in public schools, a longer period is needed since the clinical and educational knowledge must cover a broader range of special knowledge. It happens that the deaf-oral situation involves one of the simpler combinations (though recognized as indeed a difficult educational task) since the auditory organ is involved primarily. It is furthermore no mean achievement for a teacher really to understand the different types of crippled (in the strict sense of the word) who may appear among her pupils. Supervisors are, of course, to be trained both for areas and for horizontal requirements. In all probability any teacher of the physically handicapped will, in the not distant future, be required to have a working knowledge of education of the mentally handicapped as well, owing to double-defect types.

New teachers for the handicapped should plan on a year's residence at some teacher-training institution. At Teachers College, scholarships and residential opportunities are made available to aid such persons. Summer Session, now often devoted to training new teachers, would best be utilized for the professional improvement of teachers in service for whom the advances in their selected area must be made available in an organized manner. The Policy of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf in this regard is most far-seeing.

Training for teaching the handicapped must be recognized as a sort of graduate work and the policy of New York State in basing its requirements on the elementary license is praiseworthy.

All this may seem aside from the discussion of the Social Security Act and the proposed supplementary bill. The considerations are real, however, since the funds provided must be used soundly and the responsibility for such conservative and far-seeing administration rests squarely upon federal and state educational authorities. If this pump-priming is to result in willingness of the taxpayer to support programs further—and herein would lie the REAL value to education—this third leg of the tripod of support and succour of the handicapped must be as solid as the existing two.

Appreciation is expressed to Miss Katherine Lenroot, Dr. Louise Martens, Miss Edith Rockwood, Dr. Charles Scott Berry, Dr. J. J. Lee, Mr. E. J. Howenstine, Jr., and many others for valuable information. To Miss Romaine Prior, my associate, I offer thanks for the use of material from her recent national survey. The responsibility for any statements and opinions, unless directly quoted, must, however, remain the writer's

# The Relation of Physical Education to General Education

*By* JOHN M. HARMON

THE membership of Phi Delta Kappa includes the leaders and potential leaders of a professional group called educators. There are other groups of teachers who are not eligible for membership in this fraternity, which seems to indicate something unique in the training, experience, service, or interests of this group. It seems safe to suggest that the uniqueness rests in the training of this group in educational psychology, in the experience of the group in research in educational psychology and in the service and interests of every member in applying what he knows of the learning process in improving teaching methods. Therefore, it seems appropriate that I endeavor to picture to this professional group physical education as an integral part of a program of teaching and learning. Herein rests one of the most intimate relationships of physical education to general education, and a relationship which has been inadequately emphasized by physical educators.

This large muscle activity program is called by general educators and also by physical educators, a play program, which is as it should be. However, the definitions and explanations of play as provided by psychologists and physical educators have been limited to such phrases as "useless activity," "aimless activity," "instinctive activity," "recapitulation of the experiences of the race," "activity for its own sake," "childish activity," "expenditure of surplus energy," "superfluous activity," "spontaneous activity," and "amusement," all of which terms have been interpreted by many to mean that play is only a necessary evil which must be condoned only as an extra-curricular activity. In this interpretation the evil usually rests in the assumption that time spent at play is time wasted, time which should be spent in studying books. Many physical educators have meekly apologized for this "robbery" by agreeing that physical education should not consume time that might be used in any other phase of the school program. This absence of an adequate justification for physical education programs seems to have lost much needed support from general educators. The responsibility for justifying physical education as a part of general education rests upon the professional physical educator. It is to a small contribution toward this responsibility that I invite your attention.

For the moment let us think upon the technical subject of most interest to this fraternity, namely, learning. We all agree that learning is a change of conduct due to experience. Many other definitions have been offered, some equally comprehensive and descriptive, while others are more explanatory in nature. To the latter type, John Locke made a contribution more than two hundred years ago. He suggested the pleasure-pain theory of learning. In referring to the racial level of learning or evolution, he pointed out that the tendency to avoid painful or destructive experiences while repeating the pleasurable or beneficial experiences of life was responsible for the survival of the race and evolution. During the nineteenth century, Herbert Spencer pointed out the same phenomenon in nature and gave it a more universal application in the experiences of man. Spencer suggested that we tend to remember and repeat the pleasurable experiences of life while we tend to forget and never repeat the painful experiences

★ *John M. Harmon is Professor of Physical Education and Director of Athletics in Boston University. He is a graduate of Missouri Wesleyan (1921) and received the master's (1931) and doctor's (1932) degrees from Indiana University. Incidentally, he was the first recipient of a doctor's degree (Ed.D.) in Physical Education from a mid-western university. He became a member of Phi Delta Kappa at Indiana University in 1930. This article was presented to Alpha Lambda Chapter of Phi Delta Kappa as an address on October 28, 1936.*

of life. He thus illustrated the application of the pleasure-pain theory upon every level of learning experience.

At the beginning of the present century, Dr. Thorndike recognized the close association of satisfaction and pleasure with learning, and the association of pain with forgetting. Many other psychologists have observed this phenomenon in nature in various forms of its universal application.

Within the last decade, the former Dr. Leonard Troland of Harvard, with a tendency to delve into the secrets of physiological psychology, provided an explanatory picture of the pleasure-pain theory of learning. This explanation was given primarily in terms of what was known of the nature of the nervous system and particularly the cerebral cortex. Troland assumed the nervous system to be an electrical mechanism, and then defined learning as the reducing of resistance in the synapses which serve as a switchboard between the afferent and efferent nerve endings in the brain. He suggests that feeling is due to a change of electrical potential within the nervous system, and that learning, as suggested, is the reducing of resistance in the synapses which is a pleasurable feeling, while any increasing of resistance in the synapses, such as forgetting, or inhibition, is a painful experience. Modern use of solitary confinement as the most severe punishment for criminals seems to be a recognition of this hypothesis. In solitary confinement all external stimuli are eliminated, thus forcing forgetting.

The explanations of learning by Troland are made more significant through the research of Dr. George W. Crile in the Cleveland Clinic, who has very convincingly pictured all organisms as electrical and bi-polar in nature. He describes the human organism as an electrical battery in which the brain is the positive pole and the liver the negative pole. Further evidence of this nature was reported in the daily press of last March from the biological laboratory of the University of Illinois. There consciousness was measured with a galvonometer. It was found that during consciousness there was a constant flow of electrical current from all receptors to the brain and that during unconsciousness the order was reversed.

Other psychologists have attempted to explain the physiological foundation of learning in terms of the growth of dendrites at the nerve endings in the cerebral cortex, such growth accounting for the completion or partial completion of connections in the brain during the learning process, or which is in itself the learning process. Microscopic photography has provided much evidence in support of this growth theory, as it is observed that the texture of the cerebral cortex of the babe or moron is comparatively blank, while that of the intelligent adult is a mass of dendrites. However, there is no fundamental disagreement between the growth theory and that of Troland. It is important to observe that change of conduct or learning is accompanied by a change of resistance to specific stimulations going to the brain, whether this change be due to the breaking down of insulations or the stimulation of the growth of connections. The most important observation at this point is that the building up of connections or the breaking down of resistances in the cerebral cortex provides a pleasurable feeling. This practically completes a picture of the pleasure-pain theory of learning which has been developing for more than two centuries.

As far as physical education is primarily concerned, there is one additional observation which lends support to the pleasure-pain theory of learning. It has been pointed out that previous definitions of play indicate that it is an aimless, childish, superfluous, instinctive, and useless activity, but I wish to suggest that play is as purposeful as any activity of man, that it is as much an adult activity as that of the child, that it is real to the experiencing individual; that it is the opposite of instinct, and that it is the most useful activity in the experience of mankind. In other words, play is learning and learning is play. To this conclusion the pleasure-pain theory of learning lends complete support. Furthermore, this conclusion completes the pleasure-pain theory of learning. The play program offers the best opportunity for a study of the learning process. As we study the child and adult at play much evidence is discovered which supports the above hypotheses.

Illustrations in support of these hypotheses are numerous in the experiences of everyone; however, it seems best at the moment to concentrate upon the observations of students of psychology. Much of phychology has been based upon so-called human drives or urges. The erotic or sex drive and the hunger drive have occupied the attention

of all psychologists. The pleasure-pain theory of learning provides a third major drive, namely, the learning drive. Play has been referred to as a nature drive, but the application has been made only to the child, and thus the fundamental point was lost. Some psychologists have listed a dozen or more human drives, however, all of these enumerations seem to fall under one of the three urges here considered. We will give attention only to the latter suggested drive, the comparison with other major drives being made only to suggest that the reader think of this phenomenon in nature as having just as universal an application in nature as have the hunger and erotic drives.

Play has been recognized as an instinctive drive of children only, because all activities are comparatively new to the child. The child is learning or improving in skill in all of its activities and thus is provided the motivation for continued activity until exhaustion or interfering parents bring it to an end for the day. The chores at home are play to the boy or girl until the newness has worn off, until the habit stage approaches. But for this fact, the chores at home would be just as good a physical education program as could be provided in the gymnasium. A broadly conceived and efficiently organized gymnasium program provides many times the opportunities for new experience in comparison with those which are provided by chores even in a diversified farming program. Just as the child becomes useful in certain chores, having learned to do them as parents would do them, the activity loses its motivating power for the child. In other words, the learning process provided the motivation, and when the activity is learned it then becomes a habit in which there is no motivation, but to which only neutral or inhibitory reactions are expressed. Thus the child is constantly and highly motivated until adulthood when most of us become slaves to a comparatively few rigid motor habits, or resort to the ideational type of learning in which we retire to the library as our "happy hunting ground," with conviction, or rationalizing to the effect that our sober adult activity is the *useful* activity. Thus our lack of cooperation with children at play is too often due to a lack of understanding of the nature and worthwhileness of all learning activities. The adult also demands an opportunity for new experience, novelty, or innovation, just as does the child. The adult is handicapped primarily by the social convention which forbids him to act like a child. Thus the adult is driven by mores from the free exhilirating play of childhood to the modern commercial recreation centers.

It seems unnecessary to enumerate examples of the pleasure of learning as expressed in play, such as the intense stimulation of baseball to the 16-year-old boy, however, insight into the universal application of the learning drive may be further broadened by observing the suffering upon the part of mankind in the absence of new experiences. We very readily recognize the fact that the hunger drive causes suffering when food is not available for the organism. Likewise suffering results in the continued absence of learning in some form such as innovation, learning through repetition, relearning or creative learning. This suffering has been recognized as fidgets, uneasiness, worry dysphoria, boredom, ennui, lonesomeness, home-sickness, drudgery, monotony, et cetera. Therefore, mankind must be not only active to avoid suffering but must also experience innovation or newness in his daily program.

The evidence found in the everyday life of men in professions, business and industry tends to support this view. Conditions during the present machine age have caused many writers to observe in one form or another the increasing prominence of the learning drive.

For example, Picard, the stratosphere flier, recently announced that he would take anyone into the stratosphere who would provide $100,000 to finance the trip. Arthur Brisbane immediately remarked that the *growing monotony of life upon earth* would make this a very attractive offer to many if they only had the one hundred thousand. Even though made in jest, every one recognizes a great deal of truth in this statement.

Such observations as that of Brisbane are agreed upon because of two developments in modern industry and business. First, the monotony of piece work in the office and factory has become the rule. Second, unemployment and loafing has become an acute problem.

I distinctly remember, as a farmer boy, of reading in the daily papers about the activities of the American Federation of Labor in demanding for the laborer more leisure time by way of an eight-hour day. Then as I worked ten or twelve hours

per day in Swift's Packing Plant, during a vacation from college, I was convinced that the Federation was right. It seemed that the "loafing" bankers were parasites upon the laboring class. The propaganda of the Federation was so successful that the term "banker's hours" became a huge joke in all social circles.

What is the condition today? The major problem of the Federation and of the Federal Government is leisure time . . . they don't know what to do with it. In 1933, they joined hands in the N. R. A. in an effort to do something with it, then Henry Ford and The Schecter Co. "messed up the blueprints" in refusing to sign the N. R. A. codes, and the Supreme Court threw them "out the window."

The major trouble is that there is a big difference between leisure and loafing. The Federation was right twenty-five years ago in demanding more leisure time, and the suggestion of a thirty-hour week or less is still right. However, people die of loafing, boredom, or monotony just as they die young from hard labor. Unless man is given proper guidance in leisure it becomes loafing, in which monotony is greater than in hard labor. Liberty or freedom does not mean the absence of a boss. Nature is our hardest task master and the most exacting.

More specifically how could a man working in a shop be permitted to escape the usual monotony and drudgery? As we keep in mind the learning drive, let us think of the assembly line in the automobile plant. Let us assume that 100 men are required upon each line, each man assigned to a single task which inevitably must become a very simple assignment as it becomes a habit. The intelligence of the man and the comparative complicity of the task assigned will determine the length of time that the job will be a challence to the workman. Even the putting on of a single nut might hold the interest of a workman for a few days as he approaches his maximum efficiency and speed in piece work. Thereafter, the immediate pleasure, challenge, or self-satisfyingness of the activity will not be in evidence. The workman becomes restless and incidentally less efficient than he was while climbing the ladder to perfection in terms of speed plus efficiency in this simple task. As the activity is now a habit and not a conscious activity, he will make mistakes without knowing or being conscious of them. In many cases where the workman continues for years under pressure for quantity production, a nervous breakdown results. This point was excellently illustrated in a recent movie production called "Modern Times" by Charlie Chaplin.

In solving the problem of these workmen, the inevitable procedure would be that the one hundred men on the assembly line be moved along one space periodically to new tasks, the length of time upon each job to be determined by the complicity of the assignment. Assuming that the time between moves should be one week it would require almost two years for one man to complete the circuit. Theoretically, but probably not practically, since industry must be interested in both profits and the welfare of employees, the next logical move would be to give each man the parts and let him assemble a car alone.

By such a procedure as outlined, it is evident that the element of monotony would be eliminated. It would also be found that the element of drudgery in or apathy for the work would not be present. Furthermore, if the findings of educational psychologists are right, certain practical applications of the above procedure would give greater production in industry. In such applications the individual differences in intelligence or capacity to learn would have to be correlated with the difficulty of and time upon each task.

In further observation of the results of the learning drive, those who supervise girls in office work have observed the restless girl alongside the girl to whom the same work is entirely self-satisfying. Invariably the supervisor concludes that for one reason or another the hunger or erotic influence is directly or indirectly responsible for the unhappiness of the restless girl. Very seldom does it occur to him that this restless girl may be perfectly balanced as far as the hunger and erotic influences are concerned and that she may have gained all there is to be learned about the task assigned and therefore a promotion is overdue. The contented, and probably less capable girl may often receive the promotion because she seems more absorbed in the present assignment. In fact the restless girl may be perfectly loyal to the entire organization and she may be unable to explain why she is uneasy, restless, or bored. If she does know simply that her job has become monotonous she

most likely would not report as much to her supervisor for fear she would be judged to be less stable, less dependable, or less loyal to the organization. Under such conditions the brilliant girl, if she is not progressively given work of sufficient difficulty, will quite likely decide that she is in a business for which she was not "cut-out." She seeks another entirely different line of work in search of contentment, often going to some special school to prepare for the new line of endeavor.

Many girls do realize that the simplicity of their tasks is too monotonous to be tolerated and seek employment of a more challenging nature. For example, I recently requested an employment agency to recommend an office secretary. A dozen or more were sent for interviews. Most of them were employed, but invariably they said they were tired of their present job. They wanted a change. One apparently intelligent and honest girl had gotten to the emotional stage relative to her situation. She said the monotony of doing the same thing for weeks, months and years was driving her crazy. She would take any job that was different from her present one, even for less salary.

Mankind has become oppressed with monotony as he has left the farm and unit work and gone to piece work in the office and factory. The farmer, even of 1936, can only be contrasted with the groups mentioned above. He has to be an accountant, a carpenter, a dairyman, a horseman, a mechanic, a plumber, a salesman, and to be a good farmer requires that he be an excellent business man. With modern "efficiency" methods upon the farm, this is less true than in former decades, however, the learning drive is more nearly satisfied upon the farm than in any other modern business. The farmer has so many varied jobs to do that monotony is seldom a major concern. Furthermore, the absence of monotony is primarily responsible for the fact that farmers as a group have never been successfully organized and have never worried about long hours. It is only when he reads of the demands of organized labor for shorter working days that he ridicules the idea and retorts that "city workers don't know how lucky they are." On the other hand, the factory worker says "the farmer doesn't know how lucky he is in being free to do as he pleases." Free from what? Whether the piece worker realizes it or not, he does not mean freedom from activity. He would enjoy a few days or weeks of change to anything, even partial loafing, but put him in bed and in twenty-four hours he would be glad to return to the same job rather than continue in complete idleness. Therefore, there are many degrees of activity and loafing. The phenomenon of relativity functions even in time and space. When the factory worker craves for freedom he is craving for freedom from the monotony of continuing for hours daily in the drudgery of repeating those simple habits required in modern industrial efficiency. The learning drive or craving for new experience is a real power in nature that functions in relative degrees in the synapses of the cerebral cortex of each boy, girl, man and woman. It is a cosmic force that functions as universally in nature as the law of gravity. In its application, we find nature our hardest task master and most exacting.

One may continue indefinitely upon this line of thought because as we jump from one business to another this story varies only with the simplicity or complicity of the tasks to be done and the intelligence of the workers. This learning drive in nature should be understood and recognized by all who are directing or influencing the activities of others. People do not quit learning when they grow old, but they do grow old when they quit learning. The good doctor does not recommend retirement for the aged without at the same time recommending a program of recreation in travel, in the gymnasium, on the golf course, in the basement work shop, or in the library.

Therefore, assuming that this learning drive is a true phenomenon of nature, it seems safe to say that it has been partially submerged from sight by the indifference of some educators toward the activity called play. On the other hand, from Froebel on down some leading educators have been very illogical in tolerating a program they considered instinctive, and, therefore, not subject to change, while at the same time they have supported their convictions that play is much more than the explanations of it as offered by psychologists and physical educators.

As a teaching and learning program, physical education is a fundamental part of general education. Physical education is education of the physical, in other words, the development of innumerable skills or coordinations which become useful

*(Concluded on page 160)*

# College Presidents and Athletic Reform

*By* CLIFFORD LEE BROWNELL

WHAT is wrong with college athletics? The football season is over, and once again the cry of professionalism, of players bought and paid for, of overemphasis, rang loud and insistent. That problems do exist no one acquainted with the situation can deny. Bonded indebtedness for stadia, unwise use of gate receipts, promiscuous proselyting, scores of athletic scholarships, unreasonable schedules, lowered academic standards for athletes, and in some instances ruined health of competitors—these problems not only are connected with college athletics, but they are unpleasantly prevalent.

College presidents differ in their attitudes toward these matters. For example, one may support an unrestricted athletic policy as an advertising medium either for the institution or for himself. Another may be semi-consciously aware that affairs are in a bad way, but pusillanimity wins. Still another may lack interest in all matters except those of the so-called solid subjects—the ones that are fit for the "vigorous thinking" of the academician.

The president of a small college repeatedly states on the public platform that a good football team is indispensable to the life of an institution of higher learning. His college must be very much alive because it has suffered few defeats in the past decade. The coach has an excellent reputation for winning games, the alumni are loyal, and the president is a devout fan; what a paradise for the type of athletic director common a score of years ago!

In a large state university the president employed a coach to put the school on the educational map. At first the coach did as he was instructed and within a few years the mighty warriors, colors, and bands from this institution had been seen or heard throughout the country; North, South, East, and West. The coach earned his way on these trips by encouraging athletes to transfer to his college where "they would be taken care of." A telegram sent to a high-school star a thousand miles away read: "Thumb your way here and everything will be free."

Like Frankenstein's monster, however, the work was done not wisely but too well. The school and its president became the butt of many an unpleasant joke. The coach with a megalomania characteristic in such a picture frequently quarreled with the president. In one scene, scarcely suitable for a hall of learning or a cloister of the mind, the coach told the president to go to hell!

At another college an agreement has been reached whereby high-school coaches needing academic credit to qualify for state secondary certificates may obtain such credit without even visiting the campus. The account is settled in full when the coach sends the college a sufficient number of satisfactory basketball players.

One living near a certain large metropolitan area may have wondered why a particular school or coach receives so much publicity in the newspapers. Examination of the situation will reveal the fact that it costs the school, through the coach, anywhere from $3000 to $5000 annually for part of a daily column. The coach believes in the principle of reflected glory and advertises the school by having most of the space devoted to his own publicity.

When the books of a well-known university were audited a short time ago nearly $100,000 were missing. Re-examination of the accounts located the money under an item labelled sinking fund, although such a fund never existed. Where was it actually spent? After some newspaper publicity the university announced that the matter had been dropped.

These are but isolated incidents of what is happening today in the world of college sports. And these are reasons why part of the college press is up in arms against conditions as they exist. It is

★ *Clifford Lee Brownell is Associate Professor of Physical Education in Teachers College, Columbia University. He is a graduate of Teachers College with B.S. in 1925, A.M. in 1926, and Ph.D. in 1928. He became a member of Phi Delta Kappa at Teachers College in 1924.*

hard to fool students nowadays. Sometimes they seem to be very shrewd, even keener than their elders who contract enormous athletic bills. Is it any wonder that we find student organizations and student publications appearing with scathing editorials condemning schedules which force small inferior teams to serve as early season "set-ups" for the plunging giants of a large and well-equipped university? In some of the smaller colleges it is claimed that athletes are moved about like pawns to fill the ever-widening maw of debt occasioned by unwise planning and now threatening the financial foundations of the institution because of the decreased flow of greenbacks at the gate.

The trouble right now is one that was not foreseen by the able planners of yesterday. Several years ago coaches and college presidents believed that the only thing necessary to bring fame and money to the institution was the building of large stadia, seating thousands, and then inviting the public to watch the sport. In this way the coffers of the college treasury would bulge with revenue, and the coach could spend more money to subsidize bigger players to bring still greater fame and glory to good old Alma Mater.

Alas, these pretty plans met an unexpected setback. Numerous football stadia have become a frozen asset. Huge gate receipts in most universities are often but shadows of the past, and financial obligations accepted during the era of peace and plenty must be met, re-directed, or sidestepped.

A college is fortunate indeed if it has no huge stadium with an enormous indebtedness. It is bad enough to defray the operating costs when cheers for the team from a few well-intentioned students echo from the empty seats that were once filled, or it was hoped that they would be filled, by prosperous paying customers. The situation is quite generally bad. What is to be done? Shall the college default, or go bankrupt? There is something in the Bible about trading one's soul for a mess of pottage—not a few colleges have traded their educational souls for what appeared to be a beautiful amphitheater, only to find that it turned out to be a mess of steel and concrete with a specific gravity so high that it threatens to form a verticle loadstone around their academic necks.

What about scholarships? Some colleges, notorious for helping athletes a few years ago, became so lily-white overnight that scholarships were discontinued forthwith, thereby breaking faith with students who had been promised assistance for four years. It so happens that a careful examination of several of these cases reveals the interesting information that the athlete in question had failed to make good anyway; he had become injured, was burned out, or did not make the team. Naturally one is skeptical of an institution which claims to have cleaned house with one bold stroke of the administrative pen. It sounds too much like the hardened sinner who repents during revival meetings, and amidst great shouting throws away his pipe and bottle, vowing he'll sin no more. Usually, he is a subject for evangelical attention the following winter.

Perhaps it is time to say a word in defense of wisely administered athletic scholarships. The policy is not entirely bad providing certain rules are observed. If the boy wants an education and must work his way through college, can we censure him too harshly if he prefers to sell his athletic talent instead of washing dishes? Plaudits of the crowd and one's name in the sporting columns are much sweeter music than the jangle of dishes in the boarding house sink. I would not criticize a college too severely for awarding a reasonable number of scholarships in which athletic skill is a factor as well as academic merit; that is, if everyone knew to whom the scholarships were given and for what amounts. By nature we are suspicious of subterfuge and the college which prides itself upon the number of academic scholarships distributed while jealously hiding information relative to assistance given athletes is bound to be criticized.

It is recognized at once that little can be done about the financially powerful and ambitious alumnus who leads the physically powerful and athletically skilled preparatory-school boy to the doors of the Alma Mater. The two of them have a secret covenant or bartering agreement and neither one of them labors under any misapprehension—the boy is to trade his skill for an education. Such an alumnus neither befriends his college nor the student. The practice is despicable but difficult to control until intercollegiate athletics are raised to the level of educational prominence accorded other college activities.

It is a fair statement to say that a college educa-

tion is of little value unless it affects favorably the life of the graduate after he receives his diploma. Courses in history, sociology, and political economy aim to produce a better citizen with possibly greater voting intelligence. In similar fashion courses in physical education should aim to develop a better citizen with an intelligent appreciation of intercollegiate sport. Unfortunately, current practices lead numerous prominent athletes and their fellow students to acquire a wholly unsound point of view regarding the purpose of college athletics—a point of view that can neither be justified by the State as necessary, nor by individual men and women as socially desirable.

Many persons are asking the question, what kind of alumnus will the present college student make? Will his interests in athletics become more or less acute as he grows older? It is frequently claimed that the "athletics for all" movement has resulted in a number of undergraduates preferring a round of golf, a game of tennis, or a swim, to sitting in the stadium on a Saturday afternoon. Will the student who now writes a scintillating article decrying the athletic orgy continue to think in this way as he grows older, or will gray hairs about the temples and a forward moving waistline make him crave for vicarious and victorious participation, and hence athletic prominence up on the hill? Answers to these questions are to be found during those important years of undergraduate life. Certainly, it is too late after he graduates. In a recent newspaper article the director of athletics in a large Eastern University decries what he calls the deplorable situation wherein alumni subsidize athletes. Now that he sees the problem perhaps he will arrange for the development of wholesome athletic ideals for undergraduate students.

The college president who wishes to improve an unfortunate athletic situation has a worthy ally in the regional accrediting agency. Already three out of the five of these agencies have passed regulations governing athletic scholarships. Harassed by rabid alumni on the one hand, and perplexed by decreasing gate receipts on the other, the president of a college or university may apply to his regional accrediting agency for regulations governing certain athletic problems. Many a college president has thanked his stars that he lives in a land where there are regional accrediting agencies, so powerful that when they crack the whip colleges hasten to obey, and so impersonal that they can take the blame heaped upon them without losing prestige.

For the most part these associations have been especially free from criticism in dealing with eligibility, scholarships, transfers, and other matters of similar nature. Of course the regional accrediting agency prefers to accept the president's statement with respect to athletic affairs in the college and conducts an investigation only after reports of malpractice fail to enlist a satisfactory explanation from the executive head of the offending institution. When an investigation is necessary, representatives of accrediting agencies will need to exercise precaution in inspecting the athletic policies of colleges. Unless the interview or survey method used is iron-clad, officials at some institutions will find a way of answering all questions asked without giving what the chemist would call a mere trace of incriminating evidence. The most flagrant violators of rules will have plausible answers. But, if the university authorities accept the spirit of the rules and cooperate with the accrediting agency in improving the situation a monumental task of educational significance will be accomplished.

The crux of the problem lies in the method and adequacy of administrative guidance. Control of athletics by the college is the same in principle as the exercise of jurisdiction over other university affairs. Chimerical? Not at all. With the trained personnel now available, and the details of organization which have proved effective in a number of colleges, it is safe to say that any institution of higher learning may have the kind of athletic program it desires. A little time may be required to pay for stadia already constructed, or to continue scholarships which have been promised until these young men graduate. The task of reorganization, however, should begin at once. Like any other administrative function of the college, the president must assume the responsibility for setting the wheels in motion.

How is it to be done? Let us examine the evidence which relates to the problem. In the first place, intercollegiate athletics are a part of physical education; as much so as intramural athletics or the required program. Second, the only justification for any subject or program lies in the peculiar contribution which it makes to the complete educa-

tion of youth; this basic principle applies equally to physical education, mathematics, or science. Third, there are educational values to be derived from intercollegiate athletics not available to the same degree in any other division or department of the university. Fourth, several graduate schools are training men capable of administering a department of physical education (including athletics) in such a way that the broader educational aims of the institution are served through physical education in a manner similar to that of other fields of learning. We should understand that the man who makes the varsity squad in football, basketball, baseball, track, or swimming, is specializing in an art—the art of sport—and is to be regarded in the same way that we consider one who specializes in any avocational or cultural activity.

Success achieved in a score of universities where the above plan is in operation provides convincing evidence of its practicability.

The present financial crisis has of necessity focused the attention of college administrators upon problems of intercollegiate competition, largely because funds have diminished rapidly. With cheap money it was possible to cover up unsound business management or to ignore lavish expenditures. This condition of financial independence led directly to many of the unethical and uneducational policies which were then adopted. Undoubtedly, any director of the entire program who is worth his salt saves the university the amount of his salary many times during the year, although this is not his chief function.

It is his chief function to organize and conduct the department of physical education efficiently. This will involve: First, careful planning in integrating the various divisions under his direction (intercollegiate athletics, intramural athletics, service courses in physical education, and restricted physical education) with respect to program, personnel and facilities. Second, articulation and cooperation with other departments or schools. Third, support of the administration in furthering the avowed educational aims and principles which have been established for the university as a whole.

Colleges, competition, and control—the three go together. Wherever colleges exist, there also we will find athletics. From experience we have learned that competition needs to be controlled, and that this control must reside in the functions of college officials—hence the triangle is complete. But unlike the geometrician who exclaims, *"Quad erat demonstrandum,"* we are dealing with human personalities and therefore the task is more difficult. A significant step is taken, however, when presidents and boards of trustees recognize the need for assuming the same sort of administrative direction over athletics which is generally accepted as fitting and proper for other educational activities in institutions of higher learning.

## Beauty

I am no artist, but I never cease to bless the one who taught me to see color in the landscape and beauty in the brown hills and gray boulders.

I am no artist, but all my life I will be grateful to those who pointed out to me the rhythm in the growth of trees, in the flight of birds, and in the sag of the burnished power wires against the setting sun.

I am no artist, but I owe eternal thanks to him who first showed me the beauty of the great bronze doors on the City bank building because, since that day, I have seen something of the architect's vision behind the straight lines and graceful curves of great buildings.

I am no artist. I am not clever with a brush or pen, and yet no day goes by that my life is not made richer by beauty for which I have learned to look. And beauty is found in such unexpected places: the cloud-flecked sky reflecting somber gray or brilliant hues; the brown earth covered with luscious flowers, or dry with dusty weeds; trees that are prim and sedate or that sprawl upward in rugged strength; rolling hills and dashing waves; city streets, some orderly and some unkempt, but all teeming with pulsing life; and the home and school peopled with laughing youngsters anxious to grow up.

Art, with its opportunities to present ordered beauty by picture or music, is important. But even more challenging is the opportunity for every teacher to light up the lives of the coming generation to see beauty in all phases of surrounding life and activity.—By WILL C. CRAWFORD, Superintendent of Schools, San Diego, California, in *Superintendent's Bulletin.*

# Professional Training in Physical Education*

*By* N. P. NEILSON

RECOGNITION of physical education activities as as an integral part of the school curriculum was greatly delayed because of the subtle survival of three powerful prejudices. These traditional social prejudices, namely, asceticism with its exaltation of the mind and its contempt for the body, scholasticism with its emphasis on book learning, and puritanism with its exaltation of seriousness and its fear and contempt for play, had a narrowing effect on the functions of the school and made educators in general either antagonistic or indifferent to the values of physical education.

Previous to about 1860, life in the United States was largely rural and much of education took place on the farm and in the home under the influence of parents. Following 1860, the rapid development of factories, trade centers, and transportation seriously affected the home as an educational institution and created new problems related to the play life of children. Due to the congestion of population in cities, many children were robbed of their playgrounds and were forced to play in the city streets with little or no adult supervision or leadership.

These fundamental changes created a whole series of social movements sponsored by adults and designed to correct the existing conditions. The Y. M. C. A. was organized and soon the physical director became a staff member of the organization. Athletics were encouraged first in the colleges, then in the high schools and elementary schools. The playground movement was organized as a promotional effort in 1906 and the boy-scout movement began in 1910. These movements were essentially physical-education movements and they quickly created a demand for adult leaders of play activities beyond the available supply.

The need for a professional curriculum in physical education was clearly shown by this demand for play leaders with special preparation. Obviously it was the responsibility of colleges and universities to provide the training but the leaders in these institutions did not see the need until the social movements were well under way. Many of those who held positions of leadership and influence in the field of physical education were either physicians or activity specialists who had a negative attitude toward an extensive professional training in education. Further, school administrators and teachers in general were prepared for service without an insight into the problems of physical education so that their antagonism or indifference profoundly influenced the status of physical education as a profession. Under such conditions professional education in physical education was left largely to privately established normal schools that provided curricula varying in length from a few weeks to one, two, or three years.

Only within recent years have the teachers colleges, colleges, and universities with their departments or schools of education recognized the need for professional courses in physical education. Previous to the world war most of these institutions gave scant recognition to or totally ignored the problem. Following the world war the passage of state laws making physical education compulsory in the public schools created such a demand for well-prepared leaders that collegiate institutions were forced to initiate new courses and to modify others. At first the development of professional-education curricula in physical education could not keep pace with this quantity demand. In

★ *N. P. Neilson is Associate Professor of Physical Education and Hygiene in the School of Education, Stanford University. He is a graduate of Utah State Agricultural College (1919), received the master's degree in education at The University of California (1922), and has completed the requirements for the Ph.D. at The University of California, the degree to be conferred in May, 1937. He became a member of Phi Delta Kappa at The University of California in 1924.*

* A brief abstract from a manuscript, under the same title, by Clark W. Hetherington and N. P. Neilson. It is expected the manuscript will be published in book form by the Macmillan Company during 1937.

fact, special and emergency efforts, including summer session and extension courses coupled with low teacher certification requirements, were employed to meet the demand. Yet, so rapid was the development that by 1930, in most states, the supply of physical-education teachers had caught up with the demand and had changed the demand into one of quality rather than quantity.

This new public recognition of the national significance of physical education has created two emergency problems: (1) the need for formulating a school program in physical education that will meet the needs of the times and (2) the need for a standard professional-education curriculum designed to prepare experts in physical education who can make the school program effective. Solution of the latter problem involves a determination of the functions of classified groups of workers in physical education and the development of a professional curriculum of essentials which will prepare for the functions.

When constructing a professional-education curriculum any one of four methods may be used. The first of these is the *historical* or uncritical method of imitating the curriculum in an older institution or of doing what has been done before. The second method is to make a *comparative study* of the curricula in operation in a number of established teacher-training institutions. This, perhaps, is the method most frequently employed. It is like the old "scissors and paste method" used in making a course of study for elementary schools. The third method may be called *job analysis*. Here the effort is to analyze the functions being performed on the job and then to construct a professional curriculum that will prepare for these functions. While a job analysis may reveal the duties being performed, it does not in itself reveal whether the duties should be performed and whether legitimate functions are being neglected. This latter method, however, leads to the fourth method, the *constructive analysis,* which is a higher criticism of the job analysis. The job, the functions, and the training required as related to a variety of workers are constructed from a scientific analysis. But what makes this analysis scientific?

Every science is concerned with problems or situations in human experience which require observation, investigation or experimentation for their solution. A particular science is defined by a statement of the problem situations with which it deals. Hence, the word "problem" is the key word used in every science. However, science is referred to as a body of organized or systematized knowledge and also as a method. In brief, a scientist using the scientific methods attacks a problem or a series of closely related problems and produces a body of organized knowledge called science. This highly organized or systematized knowledge may be rather extensive or it may represent some minute division of a more generalized science.

Education is concerned with a great mass of complex problems or situations which require solution. These problems are being recognized, defined, and analyzed by workers in the field. The organized factual knowledge relating to the problems, when produced, may be referred to as science, therefore, education may be spoken of as a science. Education is a science now in some of its aspects and is continually in the process of becoming a science because the attitude of the scientist is that a problem is never completely solved but is always open to further attack.

Every science has its divisions and subdivisions, down to its detailed problems and up to its broad generalizations. That is, science is produced by the analysis and synthesis of problems. Broad problems may be analyzed into detailed problems and detailed problems may be synthesized into broad problems according to their logical relationships. By these two processes, problems in education may be classified and the bodies of knowledge relating to them may be organized into a science or a series of educational sciences.

A study of the problems in education by a process of analysis and synthesis has shown that all of the problems may be classified under eight general groups, or nine when the profession is included.[1] These *interrelated* groups of problems constitute the divisions and subdivisions of the problems of education and when so stated become the sciences of education. They are: (1) interpretation (results in conceptions), (2) objectives (purposes, aims, goals, outcomes, or results), (3) institutional organization and auspices (legal status and structural organization), (4) people (educability, classification and tests), (5) program (educative and protective), (6) leadership (teaching, meth-

[1] Such a study has been made by Dr. Clark W. Hetherington, School of Education, Stanford University.

ods, guidance), (7) administration, (8) history (record of past struggles of man with all of the problems in education), and (9) the profession (professional education, social status, organizations).

To understand and solve many of the problems in education, the professional worker is dependent upon knowledge to be gained from a study of certain foundation or basic sciences. Just as medicine has its pre-medical sciences so has education its pre-educational or foundation sciences. While there may be some difference in emphasis for the various workers in education who specialize by activities and by age groups of people led, in general the foundation sciences are identical for all experts in education. The sciences most fundamental to a study of educational problems are: (1) biology, (2) chemistry, (3) physics, (4) anatomy, (5) physiology, (6) psychology, (7) sociology and (8) hygiene. To think and understand the problems of education, the student must be given a thorough understanding of selected parts of these basic sciences.

The development of a professional curriculum in education by the constructive analysis method requires an adequate basis if it is to be labeled a scientific curriculum. The basis is found in the educational sciences and the foundation sciences. Included in these sciences are the bases for determining all of the functions of educational workers and all of the training required for these functions. The functions refer to the duties or responsibilities performed by any leader, teacher, or administrator. To perform his functions the worker must possess the related knowledge and skill. In his pre-service preparation this knowledge and skill is secured from courses which if logically arranged are aspects or subdivisions of the foundation sciences and the educational sciences. Therefore, the problems of education and the sciences basic to a study of educational problems include all of the courses which should be in curricula for the preparation of any and all professional experts in education. This means that all professional curricula in education when scientifically planned and logically organized have their courses arranged under the headings of the eight problems and the foundation sciences.

The functions of educational experts are relative and may be compared. They may be classified as common, distinctive, and supreme functions. Each teacher has delegated to him for a time the functions of the parent, the educative and protective functions. Every teacher leads people in activities in an environment for purposes of pupil development and adjustment according to standards. Whenever occasion necessitates, the teacher enters into protective procedures so the educative functions may go forward. To perform these functions, knowledge and skill are required.

The distinctive or specialized functions of the teacher are determined by the nature of the activities he organizes and by the age group of people being led. This means (1) that all teachers are specialists, i. e., specialized by activities or by age periods or by both, (2) that the total school education of young people is divided among these specialists, and (3) that the functions of any specialized group of teachers are partial, supplementary, relative, and comparative. Such an analysis of functions automatically makes physical education, music education, and art education a part of education in general. These aspects of education are no more special than any other aspect of education. Physical-education teachers lead pupils in a selected group of activities which yield educational or developmental results depending upon the status of the pupils led, the nature of the activities, the leadership, and the environment. Likewise, teachers of music and of art lead pupils in activities which result in individual development and adjustment.

Every teacher performs certain functions which no other teacher can perform. These are his most important or supreme functions. For example, the supreme functions of the physical-education teacher are associated with the generalized problems four and five, i. e., the adaptation of physical education activities to the individuals being led. These supreme functions require knowledge and skill in the analysis, evaluation, selection, adaptation, and organization of activities, and in the classification of pupils by age, sex, and individual differences and divergences in structural and functional traits. Because of the great possibility of permanent injury to pupils in cases where these functions are poorly performed, the functions become extremely important or supreme for the physical educator. By analysis, the supreme functions of every educational worker may be found.

Before a university professional-education curriculum in physical education can be determined, four broad studies must be made. These relate to: (1) the university organization, (2) the definition of trained competence, (3) a study of course contents, and (4) the organization of the courses as a curriculum.

The university has several characteristics which influence the nature of curricula organized under its authority. These take the form of purposes, standards, traditions, and regulations. Chief among the characteristics are the division into undergraduate and graduate levels; subdivision into schools and departments; the liberal education, research, and professional education objectives; traditional time requirements for degrees; and the use of units or credits to designate the amount of work done in courses. The professional curriculum in physical education must conform to these university traditions and regulations from the standpoint of administrative organization and curriculum organization.

Completion of a professional curriculum should give the student a trained competence to discharge the functions or duties and responsibilities of the position for which he has prepared. This trained competence is defined by the number of years of training, by degrees, and by the knowledge and skills resulting from the courses completed. Selection of students in terms of their educability may be assumed. The chief problem here is to determine the amount of competence needed for each of the great variety of positions in physical education and then to organize the necessary courses in the professional curriculum to give the desired competence.

The courses in a professional curriculum in education are selected parts of some division or subdivisions of the problems of education and the foundation sciences. They may be very superficial or very thorough. In any event the analysis or study of course contents must be a selective process because the total content in the educational sciences and the foundation sciences is too great for all of it to be included in any seven-year professional curriculum. An analysis is required for the selection of a scientifically valid list of courses if opinion in the organization of courses is to be avoided. The selection should be made with reference to competence and the problems of curriculum organization. The names of courses, the number of courses, the amount of content, the weight, the emphasis, and the sequence of courses to be selected make curriculum organization a difficult problem.

The final step in the constructive analysis method of determining the training required for competence in the functions of the physical educator is the organization of the courses into a curriculum according to university requirements for degrees and teaching certificates. At present the following four-group classification of courses seems necessary:

Group I. General courses required by the institution for a liberal education and for the baccalaureate degree (courses other than those listed under foundation sciences). For example: English, history and citizenship.

Group II. Courses in the foundation sciences (including science courses required in Group I). For example: biology, chemistry, physics, anatomy, physiology, psychology, sociology and hygiene.

Group III. Courses in Education. For example: introduction to education, history of education, educational psychology, and educational sociology.

Group IV. Courses in Physical Education (classified under the nine generalized problems of education).

Were it not for the unscientific organization of courses in schools of education a three-group classification of courses in the professional curriculum in physical education would be possible. At present this is not possible. The practice of requiring so many units in education for teaching certificates irrespective of whether the content has any relationship to the desired competence, the practice of introducing a new course with the name identical with that of each new book published in education, and the establishment of hybrid courses such as educational psychology and educational sociology (we may soon have educational chemistry, educational physiology and educational anatomy), prevent the possibility of a three-group classification of courses and of eliminating undesirable duplication of content in the various courses.

Both students and faculty members complain bitterly, and justly so, about the great duplication of content in the courses which are a part of the various professional curricula in education. In

most instances they merely complain and do little about it. They do not recognize that the possibilities for the elimination of confusion and the difficulties lie in the scientific classification of educational problems. If the courses dealt with educational sciences or with parts of these sciences, then the integration of professional curricula in physical education, art, music, and science with each other and with education in general could be accomplished.

The professional-education curriculum in physical education is rapidly coming to be a seven-year curriculum because of the great amount of content necessary for trained competence in the field. Even with seven years it is exceedingly difficult to include the necessary courses in their logical sequence. The laboratory-science courses, the special-methods courses, and the activity courses needed for the development of personal skills, are very time-consuming. Hence the amount of work required makes the total time schedule very heavy. Further difficulty is encountered in the organization of the curriculum because of adjustments that must be made with the various schools and departments of the university. University requirements, school-of-education requirements, requirements for teaching credentials, requirements made by cooperating schools and departments in the university, and the attitudes held by faculty members and academic authorities complicate the problem of curriculum organization. In spite of these difficulties physical education is forging ahead of education in general with respect to the scientific organization of its curriculum in professional education. Much progress has been made recently and further progress is expected in the immediate future.

## The Relation of Physical Education to General Education

*(Continued from page 151)*

in terms of gracefulness, poise and personality, and which, at the same time, are represented in the cerebral cortex by an increased number of synaptical connections. To the newborn babe all education is physical education. Upon this foundation is developed ideational activity or thinking. This conclusion is a very old one. It has been much more than 2000 years since Plato said, ". . . not a body plus a mind, but a unity in which the physical life passes upward into the mental . . ." Since this expression of monism philosophy and psychology have swayed many times from monism to dualism and back, but under the influence of the scientific contributions of recent decades, there is an almost universal acceptance of monism within professional ranks. Upon this foundation in epistemology I prefer to justify physical education as a unique part of general education.

Upon this foundation, physical education takes its place as an art in the school curriculum. Dr. Richard C. Cabot of the Harvard Medical School has aptly said in his book, "What Men Live By":

"Let us, therefore, give play, recreation, and the other popular arts their proper place beside the fine arts, and avoid the common error which degrades play to a medical instrument. Thus we shall help to preserve the "fine arts" from dying of isolation. That is a real danger today. Chilled by our formal respect, discouraged by our practical neglect, mortified by our sentimental petting, the musician, sculptor, and painter are dangerously out of the current of vigorous American life. Or, to put it from the other side, American life is dangerously neglectful of some forms of art as well as of most forms of scholarship. The drama, baseball, and dancing are the only popular arts of America today. Let us realize that *they are nevertheless genuine arts,* and plant them close beside music, literature, and sculpture. Such a realization will help to keep vulgarity out of popular art, and to save the fine arts from generating into fastidiousness or dying of super-refinement."

As an art, the first objective of physical education is to educate, however, the development of a program upon the foundation herein constructed will lead to a more complete realization of all of those worthy objectives which have been held as unique or fundamental in physical education.

In conclusion, play is learning, therefore, the relation of physical education to general education is fundamentally not different from the relationship of other units within the general education curriculum. Physical education should be a part of the daily program upon every grade level of training, even to the inclusion of college.

# The Professional Preparation of Teachers

*By* CARL F. TRIEB

WITHIN this article, we propose to develop certain aspects in the professional preparation of teachers of health and physical education with special attention to character, personality, and social adaptability as essential elements.

A great many articles have appeared in the literature of education in recent years referring to the desirability of permitting intellectual and vocational growth to take place along the lines of the student's interest and aptitudes. If we select our physical education teacher-training candidates on the basis of inherent aptitude, we must subscribe to the thesis that "teachers are born and not made," at least in part. In the studies conducted by Ragsdale in this connection the findings appear to be far from conclusive.[1] In them no evidence was revealed to indicate positively that students electing to major in physical education have any "inherent or natural aptitude" for the profession. It would seem, then, that we cannot depend upon discovering the best teacher prospects through a reliance on implied aptitude or apparent interest in the field. Other means must be devised for making the selection, with the production of the teacher the responsibility of the training program of the institution.

It is generally agreed that the major essentials to teaching success resolve themselves into five divisions:[2] (1) Physical fitness; (2) Knowledge of the principles and techniques of physical education and of the foundation sciences; (3) Skill in the performance of physical activities; (4) Skill in the technique of teaching; and (5) Character and personality. To these a sixth qualification should be added, namely, (6) Social adaptability.

It seems obvious that candidates for teacher-training will not possess all of the above attributes. If the training course is to profit him at all it must necessarily be with respect to knowledge of the principles and techniques of physical education, and skill in teaching techniques. In the matters of physical fitness, skill in the performance of physical activities, character and personality, and social adaptability, we are quite within our rights in demanding that the candidate measure up to certain minimum standards. Character, personality, and social adaptability seem to me to be of greater importance than any of the others.

★ *Carl F. Trieb is Assistant Professor of Physical Education in Occidental College, Los Angeles, California. He is also Grand Vice-President of Phi Epsilon Kappa, a professional fraternity in Physical Education. Mr. Trieb is a graduate of The University of California (1922) and has the master's from The University of Southern California (1931). He is now doing graduate work toward the Ph.D. at Stanford University.*

Occupying a prominent place in the aims of education is "ethical character," which has been set up as one of the important goals to be achieved through the educational process. In attempting to subscribe to the general aims of education through the medium of the contributions which physical education may make, we have recognized the principle of ethical character and have included it in practically every one of the sets of objectives formulated for our profession. The acceptance of this goal is not of recent date, for "physical educators have for years claimed to be builders of character."[3]

In making the preceding statement McCloy points out rather conclusively that we have assumed that character development in our young people would be the natural result of participation in selected activities which provide character-training and social-training situations. With equal conclusiveness he points out that "the wonder is not that character results have failed to come through either physical education or other such movements but that anyone should have expected such results to be forthcoming when the methods used were not specifically planned to secure changes in character and were not in harmony with sound educational techniques."[3]

We cannot take issue with these statements. We can, however, point out a very important omis-

sion of which he is guilty in his discussion of character building through physical education. He neglects to take into consideration the character of the teacher himself. This trait, with that of personality, is of even greater importance in insuring teaching success than is knowledge of subject-matter material, skills in activities, or skill in the technique of teaching. Unless we recognize this we must assume that there is something miraculous about physical education activities themselves, in the participation of which children will acquire all those qualities of character with which we would have them endowed. It cannot be conceded that the activities possess such power.

Character and personality, then, are qualifications which the candidate must possess before we accept him for the professional training course. We seem quite ready to insist upon a candidate's possession of physical personality as an essential to acceptance for training. But while physical personality may be appraised by means of observation, additional evidences of the student's whole personality should be secured. This should be done as early as possible in his undergraduate work; it would be best to determine character and personality traits while the individual is still in high school.

This is not alone the opinion of physical education administrators; those in the highest administrative positions in education likewise accede to this point of view. In the program of selection which Bristow proposes he asks as his second question: "Does he (the candidate) possess the stability of character and the essential character traits which would entitle him to be placed in charge of adolescent boys and girls, a position which probably offers more opportunities for positive character development than any other position that the school has to offer?"[4] In emphasis of his convictions in this matter he continues:

> The fine things that are implied in a teacher are too frequently missing in teachers in all fields of work. The individual who has secured his position primarily because of the fact that he has been successful on the basketball or football team, despite the fact that in personal appearance, in language, and in character, he may lack all of those traits that you and I might wish to be present in those who teach our boys and girls, must soon go out of the picture."[5]

Traits of character and personality in the teacher should be desired not only for the protection of the children coming under his influence but also as a factor serving to guarantee proficiency and success in teaching. The poorly prepared teacher who possesses character and personality will accomplish more with his small stock of trade than will the excellently prepared teacher lacking these traits.

In the light of what has been said we may assume that physical education activities in themselves are inherently incapable of bringing about the development of desirable character traits in pupils who participate in them; that more important by far are the character and personality of the teacher. Character development is not brought about by reason of what the teacher *knows,* nor what he *does,* but because of what he *is.* This is expressed most aptly by Lapp in his remark that "improvement in the so-called character education is caught from the teacher, not taught by him."[6]

Having established the thesis that personality and character are essential to successful teaching, it follows that one of our first concerns is to ascertain whether the candidate for professional training possesses these qualities. To do this effectively, it is desirable that we define with reasonable clarity what the term "personality" connotes. Is it something indefinite and intangible, something so lacking in substance that it cannot, according to Hume's conception of it, be measured objectively?[7] Or is it on the contrary a trait which, while not capable of being measured itself, can be determined in terms of an individual's reactions to his experiences? The latter viewpoint seems to be the more acceptable to those sociologists, psychologists and psychiatrists who have made studies in this field.[8] According to them:

> Personality is the integration of those systems of habits that represent an individual's characteristic adjustments to his environment. . . .
>
> By the term personality is meant the sum total of the reactions of an individual to all of the situations which he encounters. The reactions may be physical or mental, are always expressed in some way in the behavior of the individual, and in order to evaluate personality it is necessary to study not only the exhibited behavior but the situations which precipitate or stimulate behavior. . . .
>
> Personality cannot be completely described in terms

of reactions but the individual as a stimulus must also be taken into account. An individual's personality is not defined by his responses to others as much as it is by the responses which others make to him as a stimulus. In brief, personality is the individual's social stimulus value. . . .

In the matter of teacher personality we are not so much concerned with his own reactions as we are with the reactions of his pupils toward him. What is that "something" that one of two equally well-prepared teachers possesses that enables him to secure results which the other is unable to obtain? We attribute it to "personality," and though we may not be able clearly to state in what respects the successful teacher is superior in this trait, we sense that superiority. It is a quality which attracts others to him and which seems to dissolve their barriers of reserve to the point of stimulating their interest and enlisting their co-operation.

How fortunate the teacher who possesses this attribute! Through its means he is enabled to exert a powerful influence in directing his pupils; without it he often fails, though unremitting in his efforts, to reach the educational goals he has set for himself.

This problem is not one purely of academic interest. It has very definite practical implications. A recently released committee report[9] substantiates this statement:

All school administrators set a high value on personality traits in their selection of candidates for teaching positions. Many regard the personality factor as the most important of all in determining the future value of the teacher. In varying degrees, school officials indicate some confidence in the reports of teacher-training institutions as to the scholarship, breadth of training, and initial practice success of graduates, but rare indeed is the appointing official who will accept appraisals of personality until these are confirmed by his own sensitive judgment through a personal interview. In general, there seems to be unquestioned agreement, not only that personality traits are of prime importance, but also that teacher-training institutions have not yet furnished convincing evidence, either of according sufficient weight to such qualities in recommending candidates for certification and employment, or of possessing reliable procedures for recognizing and measuring deficiencies in these traits to the end that undesirable candidates may be eliminated. . . .

Although superior personality may be attributed in part to a fortunate hereditary endowment, the report gives evidence of recognizing the possibility of the greatest development of that capacity through the agency of social, cultural, and artistic experiences:

In the closely related field of many-sided interests and readiness to meet sympathetically the corresponding varied interests and queries of the pupils, the training institution has the preponderant advantage in opportunity of knowing and appraising prospective teachers. This phase of the teacher's equipment lends itself rather readily to objective measurement and record. In this connection the chief feature to emphasize is the need for having an adequate record of the opportunities which the student has taken for participating in social, artistic, and recreational activities such as would develop a personality characterized by broad sympathies and diversified interests. . . .

We are often embarrassed in our attempts to define personal character and to fix the limits of the characteristics that properly should be included in the term. "Personal character," continues the report, are those "personal traits required in high-grade professional service (and) include appearance, dress, poise, force, vitality, social attitudes, co-operativeness, temperament, emotional stability, integrity, and personal habits and manners that are not offensive to pupils, co-workers, and people of the community." It can best be developed through many-sided interests, which implies "participation in community enterprises, discussion of social problems, reading, music, conversation, social contacts with people, clubs, hobbies, and travel."

In view of the tremendous importance which personality plays in the personal and professional success of the teacher it is evident that we should make every effort:

1. To secure for our profession those high-school students who give evidence of possessing desirable character and personality traits, and

2. To emphasize the need for character and personality development in those candidates who are deficient in this respect, by proper guidance and through the provision of courses designed to aid them.

In some respects the term "social adaptability" is synonymous with personality. In its widest sense it includes the latter along with a host of other traits and qualifications. It implies that ability which enables the individual to get along not only

with people of his own class but with those of different economic and social levels; with those who hold differing points of view regarding religion, and politics; with those of his own sex and of the opposite sex; with the child, the youth and the adult; in short, to be able to fit into any group with which he may find himself without fear, self-consciousness, or a feeling of superiority or inferiority.

We speak of education today as a socializing process. The method by which this is accomplished is through the "activity" school, the "socialized" recitation, and "project" method, and similar ways. These newer philosophies of the function of education are not foreign to physical education. Blanchard states that "the physical activity program has become a socialized and naturalized procedure" and Lapp concurs in this viewpoint by exclaiming:

> It seems that teachers of girls are stressing the social aspects of physical education more than do the boys' teachers. It also seems that the boys are getting more of these values than the girls even though their teachers do not stress the social aims. . . .[10]

In our more enlightened viewpoint of the function of physical education, we are becoming more and more convinced of the role which activities play in the educational drama. No longer do we consider the learning of a skill to be an end in itself; we look upon it merely as a vehicle which will transport us to that goal which is the end of all education. That end, or aim, or goal, may be summed up in the term "citizenship." It represents the summation of all the qualities which the individual should possess in order to make his contribution as a worth-while member of society.

Physical education has willingly assumed its share of the responsibility for developing citizenship traits. To assume that the physical activities in the program are capable of accomplishing this would be equally as erroneous as assuming that they can by themselves develop character. Character, after all, is but a phase of good citizenship, and good citizenship, in turn, implies social adaptability. Once again we must look to some other source than physical activities for the ultimate cause of the development of the social qualities which we would have children possess.

Three avenues of learning are open to the child: (1) learning by hearing; (2) learning by doing; and (3) learning by seeing. The last has reference, of course, to learning by precept. If the teacher possesses those social qualities which make for ease of adjustment in his personal contacts, his pupils in their association with him each day are likely to absorb some of those qualities.

Social adaptability must not, however, be confused with familiarity. The two are separated by a wide abyss. The first means the ability to associate amicably with people without descending to their level; the second necessitates descending to their level in order to get along with them. It results in the breaking down of legitimate barriers of reserve which should always be present between the teacher and his pupils.

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B. F. Austin, M.D., Director of the Bureau of Hygiene and Nursing, Alabama State Department of Public Health, writing on "Health Education" in the *Alabama School Journal* for March says, "The increasing interest of educators in practical health teaching is the result of newer knowledge and pedagogical proceedings. Teachers are now accepting health as one of the fundamental objectives in education. Health is no longer being taught through memorizing facts, but as a planned program in the curriculum. Moreover, it is supported by a knowledge of the facts involved and by a type of training of pupils which will stimulate the development of right health behavior and promotion of correct attitudes."

# Measurement in the Field of Physical Education

*By* FREDERICK W. COZENS

## Historical Development

IT SEEMS reasonable to state that measurement in all fields of education has rather consistently reflected the educational philosophy of the particular period under consideration. Since this is especially true in physical education, it may be enlightening for those readers who are not specialists in the field to follow the development of measurement in physical education during the past three-quarters of a century.

*Anthropometric Measurements*—In 1860, when Dr. Edward Hitchcock was brought to Amherst College to occupy the first chair of physical education to be established in the United States, the dominant idea in the philosophy of physical education of those early days took shape. It was quite natural that Hitchcock, trained in medicine as were many of our pioneers, should stress the development of musculature, and for a period of years emphasis was placed on *symmetry and size* in man's physical development. Countless thousands of measurements were made of the men who passed through our leading colleges. These were collected with the idea of presenting to the individual a chart of his proportions which would enlist his interest in attempting to make his body conform as closely as possible to the ideal. The cultivation of a wide interest in physical growth was undoubtedly one of the early major objectives.

*Strength Tests*—After twenty years, Sargent, a dynamic and outstanding leader in physical education and also trained as a physician, introduced a new type of measurement for the prevailing objective of the times. Beauty of proportion of the human body, while still somewhat prominent as an objective, had become subordinate to actual *strength and power.* It was claimed that "body size and measurement of muscles alone did not furnish sufficient data upon which to base a judgment of a man's power and working capacity."[5] The measurement of strength was undoubtedly hastened by the invention of several dynamometers, instruments designed to measure the strengths of various parts of the body in lifting, pulling, and pushing, and was used by Sargent and others for partially determining the fitness of prospective athletes for competition in sports. So popular did strength testing become at one time (1897) that it was adopted as an intercollegiate activity and competitions were held between the strong men of various colleges and universities.[55] The important idea for us, however, is that of classification or grouping, according to ability. It is interesting to note that *strength and power* persisted in our measurement program for at least a third of a century and, as a matter of fact, has come again into considerable prominence in more recent years with the experimental work of Rogers[53] in the establishment of his Physical Fitness Index (P. F. I.).

*Cardiovascular Tests*—Almost concurrently with the development of strength tests came an attempt on the part of physiologists particularly to develop a test of the efficiency of the circulatory system by means of the reaction of the heart to a given amount of muscular activity. This type of test was interesting to physical educators in their research for a measure of *physical condition,* but was used to supplement rather than supplant tests of muscle power and skill. Prominent among the

★ *Frederick W. Cozens is Professor of Physical Education in the University of California at Los Angeles. He is a graduate of the University of California (1915), where he also received the master's degree (1918), and received the doctor's degree (1928) at the University of Oregon. He became a member of Phi Delta Kappa at the University of California in 1915. Doctor Cozens is associate editor of* RESEARCH QUARTERLY *and* THE JOURNAL OF HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

pioneers in this phase of measurement must be mentioned the names of Crampton, McCurdy, Meylan, Foster, Baruch, Barringer, and Schneider.[5] More recently the experimental investigations of McCloy,[37] Tuttle,[58] and McCurdy[45] have proved most helpful in giving to the profession tools for the more accurate measurement of *physical condition.*

*Athletic Ability and Achievement Test*—Shortly after the beginning of the twentieth century, emphasis in the program of physical education was placed on athletic games and sports. Quite naturally, the attention of the leaders in the field was directed toward the measurement of fundamental skills important in the play life of boys and girls. Athletic activities were analyzed and broken up into their component parts—speed, accuracy, body co-ordination and control, balance, endurance, and the like. Standards of achievement were set up more or less empirically and, although much of the measurement was done with unscientific "measuring sticks," it must be remembered that the early work in all phases of education was very crude in the light of present-day theory and practice. The classification of boys and girls for purposes of fairness in competition, according to the factors of age, grade, height, and weight, or some combination of these factors, was also given serious consideration and in this connection the pioneer work of Reilly must be regarded as outstanding. Numerous attempts to measure physical ability by a single test, expressed as a simple index figure, have proved unsuccessful because of the fact that the measurement of neuromuscular efficiency is a very complicated matter.

## Recent Advances in Physical Education Measurement

The scientific progress made in measurement by the "academic" fields of education has been reflected into the field of physical education during the past twelve years. Our recent investigators have been trained in the scientific approach to the problems of test construction and the present-day physical education teacher should be keenly aware of the use and value of measuring instruments in better providing for the needs of boys and girls under his direction. Despite the fact that measurement must be used for research in our professional program, its essential purpose is the improvement of teaching procedures for the benefit of students engaged in activities.

In outlining the tests which have been developed for use in the organization, administration, and supervision of the physical education program, it seems appropriate to attempt to classify them according to the purposes for which they have been devised and to express an opinion as to their special function. There are many tests mentioned in our physical education literature which appear to have possibilities for use, but only those will be cited here in which validation has been attempted. The research worker will immediately recognize that not all of the tests have been validated with equal care, but it must be pointed out that scientific statistical procedure is now the common practice in the development of measuring instruments in physical education.

1. *The Measurement of Body Mechanics*—The attempt to improve posture is perhaps one of our oldest objectives in physical education and numerous devices such as posture charts and silhouettes have been brought forward from time to time to judge or rate posture. These devices have little importance scientifically, but there are available a number of methods of rating posture in which scientific procedures have been used and where emphasis is undoubtedly placed on motivation of the individual toward correction.

The *Brownell Scale*[8] for measuring the antero-posterior posture of ninth-grade boys presents a series of silhouettes arranged in order of merit by the combined judgment of experts in the field. In order to rate the student, his antero-posterior posture (silhouette) is compared with the various types appearing on the scale in much the same manner as the teachers would use a handwriting scale.

In the MacEwan-Howe method of grading posture,[36] an antero-posterior photograph is taken of the student and from the photograph three measurements are calculated, which, when combined and weighted statistically, represent the posture grade, expressed numerically or by letters. The composite judgment of a group of specialists has been used as a basis for validation. The method, while appropriate for small numbers of students, will probably not be considered in a public-school situation where economy is imperative.

Crook[17] has recently presented a silhouette-scale for measuring the antero-posterior posture of

the pre-school child. The technique used is quite similar to that developed by Brownell.[8]

Mention must be made of the work of Cureton[20, 19] and his associates at Springfield College in the development of (1) a conformateur apparatus for measuring spinal curves, (2) techniques for objectively scaling postural measurements, and (3) a static center-of-gravity test.

2. *The Classification of Pupils*—For a period of twenty years or more, physical educators have recognized the desirability of equalizing the physical differences which exist among children of the same age group. The range of size, maturity, and performance ability of children of a given age presents a number of problems in physical education, among which may be mentioned a lack of interest on the part of the smaller and weaker children, and a real physical hazard for these same pupils while in competition with those who are more mature and of superior size and strength.

Although it might be shown that a large number of physical measurements have a more or less significant bearing upon performance, the factors of age, height, and weight, when used in the proper combination, offer a simple and practical classification device. *McCloy's Classification Index*[39] of 20 Age (in years) plus 6 Height ( in inches) plus Weight (in pounds) has been shown to be a satisfactory measure of size and maturity. The proper combination of these factors has also been verified by other researches.[15] This classification index is not applicable to girls past the age of fifteen and one-half years because of the negligible relationships existing between the factors and performance. For secondary-school boys another index has been established which is a better fit for this particular age group— 20 A + 4.75 H + 1.6 W. Administratively this index[16] is used as 2 A + .475 H + .16 W. For girls of the junior high school age the best-fit index[14] is 20 A + 10 H + 1.1 W.

Two methods for grouping college men are available. McCloy's[39] index for classifying boys over seventeen is 6 H + W, while Cozens[11] groups college men into nine different stature classes on the basis of height and weight. Both schemes recognize the fact that with groups of men at the college level, the age factor is negligible.

Although Rogers' strength index and physical fitness index[53] will be mentioned elsewhere, one of the uses to which these indices are applicable is in equalizing the abilities of competing individuals or teams by grouping together boys of nearly equal strength.

When it seems desirable to use other factors than age, height, and weight for homogeneous grouping, Kistler[34] has validated a plan for such grouping and presents three batteries of tests of four items each. The battery for use depends upon the information and economy desired.

3. *The Measurement of General Qualities*—Under this heading are grouped a number of tests which may be used for measuring certain general qualities commonly known as innate or general motor or physical capacity, motor ability, athletic ability, neuromuscular skill capacity, and the like, as contrasted with the specific ability required in a particular sport. In all probability no one of the tests measures the entire amount of the quality under consideration but each has certain values for diagnosing physical performance difficulties, or for predicting undeveloped abilities.

*Strength tests and physical fitness indices* have been introduced into the measurement program of physical education as measures of general athletic ability and big-muscle activity habits and when used by properly qualified individuals may indicate a functional vitality which in turn seems fundamental to health. The average teacher, however, must not attempt to prescribe health needs on the basis of his findings with relation to strength tests and physical fitness indices. The Rogers' Strength Index and McCloy's adaptation of it[52, 41] have been shown to be of importance to the teacher both as an indicator of physical condition and as a motivator. In addition to these two strength tests, there is available *MacCurdy's Physical Capacity Index*[44] for secondary-school boys. MacCurdy's index takes into consideration both muscular force and velocity, *Power = Force × Velocity,* and appears to be "an excellent measure of the muscular potentialities required for physical achievement, . . . the kind of general physical capacity found in an individual's performance and achievement in vigorous team games and sports."[44]

McCloy's tests of *General Motor Capacity* and *General Motor Ability*[40] are designed to measure on the one hand "inborn, hereditary potentialities for general motor performance" and on the other "certain important phases of general motor per-

formance ability," a developed capacity as it were. When the *General Motor Ability Test* is equated against the *General Motor Capacity Test,* a *General Motor Ability Quotient* is obtained. This quotient may be used as a measure of the individual's ability in relation to his capacity. Each test contains separate items weighted differently for various age-levels of boys and girls, and useful in "determining the general development of motor function" as well as "relative innate strengths and weaknesses."[42] These two tests have been validated for use in the elementary, junior, and senior high schools.

*Tests of Motor Educability*—The term *motor educability* seems to have been popularized by McCloy and refers to "the ease with which an individual learns new skills." Included in this category are three tests valuable for use in a measurement program, (1) *The Brace Scale of Motor Ability Tests,*[6] (2) *The Iowa Revision of the Brace Test,*[34] and (3) *The Johnson Physical Skill Tests.*[33] The *Brace Test* consists of twenty items of the stunt type scored by means of the T-Scale and designed for the purpose of assisting in the classification of students and the evaluation of achievement. The *Iowa Revision of the Brace Test* consists of ten stunts divided into two batteries of five each. T-scores here are based on two trials for each stunt. *The Johnson Physical Skill Tests* attempt to measure "native neuromuscular skill capacity" and consist of ten exercises, involving locomotion for a distance of fifteen feet, performed over a pattern or design painted on a special canvas strip. Pupils are grouped homogeneously according to their scores.

At the college age-level, there is available *Cozens' General Athletic Ability Test*[13] for college men designed primarily for diagnosis and the prescription of remedial activity.

For college women, three tests have been constructed to measure the quality known as *motor ability,* a quality which one writer has defined as "the capacity to move about in 'big-muscle' type of activity."[32] *The University of Oregon Motor Ability Test*[1] consists of four items of the big-muscle type designed primarily for grouping students. *The Minnesota Motor Ability Test*[27] contains five individual tests and is valuable as a measure of present status. *The Humiston Motor Ability Test*[32] is used for determining present status as well as for classification. The final test consists of seven items administered as one consecutive unit.

4. *Achievement Scales*—The measurement of achievement in an activity should be an integral part of the physical education program from the standpoint of the pupil as well as that of the teacher. How else can an objective determination of skill status be obtained? Brace[7] has done pioneer work in this field particularly with basketball, baseball, and soccer skills and was probably the first to apply T-Scale technique to the scoring of tests in physical education.

McCloy's Scoring Tables[39] for track and field events are constructed on the principle of an *increased-increment* award as performances become more difficult and are applicable to heterogeneous groups.

A rather extensive program of research, involving the construction of achievement scales, has been carried on in California for a period of five years. The program started with the construction of scoring tables for boys, 10 to 16 years of age, in five events, called the Junior Pentathlon.[12] The construction of achievement scales for boys and girls from the elementary school through college was then undertaken. The work has now been completed and as a result there are available scales in a large number of individual events for homogeneous groups, all constructed on the same basis from adequate data.[48, 16, 11, 14]

The National Recreation Association has published *National Physical Achievement Standards*[47, 31] for boys and girls. Since substantial relationships exist between the factors of age, height, weight, and performance, grouping according to age alone would appear to be a questionable procedure. The same point may be raised regarding *Conger's Physical Achievement Tests for Boys.*[10]

5. *Sport Technique Tests*—Although a large number of tests in this field have been suggested, those in which validation has been attempted are comparatively few. Tests in this particular phase of our measurement program attempt either to predict potential playing ability or evaluate present status and may be used as partial means of determining the course mark or semester grade in a particular sport.

At the elementary-school level, Rogers and Heath[51, 29] have constructed batteries of tests in

two sports for boys, playground baseball and soccer.

For college men, technique tests in three sports have been formulated, *The Edgren Basketball Test,*[22] *The Borleske Touch Football Test,*[4] and *Cureton's Test for Endurance in Speed Swimming.*[18] It is quite possible that there are a number of unpublished studies in this particular test classification.

Two sport technique tests have been developed for college women, *The Young-Moser Basketball Test*[60] and *The Dyer Backboard Tennis Test.*[21] A number of experiments in the measurement of rhythm in college women have been conducted but as yet an entirely satisfactory test has not been developed.[2, 35, 56, 9]

6. *Cardiovascular Tests*—The use of tests of this type is regarded with a considerable degree of skepticism by the medical profession, principally because of the fact that the many factors involved in such tests are not clearly understood by the layman. The development of a simple test of this type which could be applied by physical educators in *mass* fashion would be a great asset to the profession, but so far no such test has appeared. What the physical education teacher needs is not a test by which he shall make a diagnosis in regard to the functional capacity of the heart, but one which will afford protection to both student and teacher when there is doubt about whether or not the student should engage in strenuous activity. There are at least three tests which will accomplish this purpose, namely, the *Pulse-Ratio Test,* simplified in the United States by Tuttle,[58] *McCloy's Test of Present Condition,*[37] and *The McCurdy-Larson Organic Efficiency Test.*[45] No attempt should be made to administer these tests except in a comparatively few individual cases.

7. *Physical Education Knowledge and Information Tests*—A great deal of attention has been paid within the past few years to this phase of our measurement program. The most comprehensive battery of knowledge tests available is that developed by the Department of Physical Education for Women at the University of Minnesota.[57] Tests in ten activities plus hygiene, each composed of 45 questions of the multiple-choice type, have been validated. Hemphill[30] has formulated *Information Tests in Health and Physical Education for High School Boys* in five major phases of the physical education program. *The Murphy Golf Knowledge Test*[46] and *The Grisier Field Hockey Test for College Women*[28] are valuable additions in the sport group.

8. *Behavior Rating Scales*—An excellent start in the development of behavior rating scales for use in physical education situations has been made by McCloy[38] and others[3, 49, 50] and in this field we can expect much progress in the next few years.

9. *Health Education*—This term is used advisedly so that here may be included not only tests measuring health knowledge, habits, and attitudes but also certain features of health service. Several well-known tests are to be found in this field: (1) *The Gates-Strang Health Knowledge Test*[26] standardized for grades 3 to 12; (2) *The Franzen Health Education Tests,*[24] in which norms are available for grades 5 and 6; and *The Wood-Lerrigo Health Behavior Scales*[59] constructed for use from the kindergarten through the entire school period. Two other health-knowledge tests which appear to have excellent possibilities of further development with adults and college students have recently appeared in the literature.[23, 54]

*The A C H Index of Nutritional Status*[25]—This index was devised for the purpose of selecting the most serious cases of malnutrition and undernourishment for thorough examination by a physician. Simple measurements of the upper arm, chest, and hips are used in its calculation and it is designed to replace the old age-height-weight tables, shown to be a rather poor measure of nutritional status.

## Summary

Though measurement in physical education has long been regarded with favor by leaders in the profession, it has only been in recent years that scientifically constructed tools have been used. Since 1925, tremendous strides have been made and we now have a body of tests and measures which will greatly assist the teacher in better providing for the needs of students under his direction. Not all of the measuring instruments are perfected and there is much yet to be done, but by careful evaluation of the data collected, a fairly accurate picture of the student's present status can be drawn. Such a picture should be the basis for the formulation of a better program in physical education. The determination of present status will depend upon the teacher's application of tests

under the following headings: (1) body mechanics, (2) classification indices, (3) innate capacities or potentialities, (4) skill status in a variety of activities, (5) physical condition, and (6) knowledge.

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# A Brief Résumé of S. 1634

A BILL to provide for the education of all types of physically handicapped children, to make an appropriation of money therefor, and to regulate its expenditure.

To each State will be given the amount of $40,000 (total $2,080,000) to establish, extend and improve services for educating physically handicapped children. This amount, which does not require matching, will enable States to make educational provisions for physically handicapped children where most needed. The amount of $9,000,000 is for matching purposes, thereby enabling these States to more effectively establish, extend and improve special educational facilities for physically handicapped children. The money so appropriated under this Bill will be used in paying the cost of services for the education of physically handicapped children over and above the cost of educating physically normal children. It shall be administered through the State Department of Education.

The need for Federal support in this field of special education is evidenced by the small percentage of physically handicapped children who are afforded an opportunity in their respective States for proper and adequate education. Generally speaking there are a million and a half to two million children who would fall under the definition of the physically handicapped as defined in this Bill. Of this number, less than 150,000 are receiving special educational advantages. It is estimated that approximately $14,000,000 is now being expended by the various States to pay for the excess cost of educating less than 150,000 children referred to above.

An amount of $500,000 is allocated to the United States Office of Education which is not only for administration of the Bill but also for the purpose of making studies, investigations, reports, etc. Administrative costs of Federal Departments administering funds to States in a similar manner runs from 3 per cent to 5 plus per cent. The amount allocated in this Bill to the Office of Education for administering $11,080,000 is 4 plus per cent.

The Federal Government has through the Social Security Act provided for physical rehabilitation of certain types of physically handicapped children and through the Vocational Rehabilitation Act has provided funds for the special vocational education of certain physically handicapped groups after they have reached the employable age. There now remains a wide gap in affording security to the physically handicapped children because of the lack of special educational facilities within the States. The provisions of this Bill will make it possible to fill that gap.

# A Social Program for Leisure

*By* ELMER D. MITCHELL

IT HAS become trite to refer to the new leisure and how it has come about. Yet, in all the uncertainty of today, one thing stands out definitely; we have more leisure than has ever been possessed in any previous era of society. The most commonly mentioned factor contributing to this social situation is the amazing development of machinery. Also important, although less well known, are such factors as the entrance of women into business and the professions, the closing of our American frontiers, and all the many trends in social legislation regarding work hours and age limitations.

Is this new leisure a pressing social problem? Yes, if only from the standpoint of magnitude. Prior to our time, leisure was the possession of a privileged class, produced by the labor of slaves, serfs, or peasants, as the case might be; but today every man has mechanical slaves working for him so that free time is placed at the disposal of *all* men instead of only a fortunate few. While this situation is a democratic one, it also presents a stupendous problem; the leisure time of an entire society—all ages, all classes, and both sexes—must be planned in some way. In other words, we have a need for mass consumption of leisure at the same time that we have mass production in industry.

Even so, the size of the leisure-time problem would not be so formidable if we could simply take the old ways of using leisure and go into more intensive and extensive development of them. It so happens, however, that as we have acquired our newly found leisure, we also have been changing our attitude toward the whole question of leisure and the acceptable ways of using it. This is not unusual because throughout the whole of history the word "leisure" has been constantly changing in meaning.

Let us consider the changing concepts of "leisure" that have occurred within a comparatively short span of time. The pioneers frowned upon leisure. There was so much for them to do—forests to clear, swamps to reclaim, roads to build,

★ *Elmer D. Mitchell is Director of Intramural Sports, University of Michigan, and Editor of The Journal of Health and Physical Education. He is a graduate of the University of Michigan (1912) where he also received the master's degree (1919) and where he became a member of Phi Delta Kappa in 1922.*

large families to feed and to protect—that the person who took time for relaxation seemed an idler and a shirker. These forefathers of ours were building a continent and, naturally, they hated to see energy wasted. Leisure was not a problem with them. It was discountenanced.

When organized industry first came into being, the twelve-hour day seemed the natural and obvious period of toil. Then followed the ten-hour day and the six-day week of manual labor. Saturday was only another full work-day. Under such a situation, leisure was welcomed for the sake of rest for a tired body and a weary spirit. Sunday was truly a day of rest, and it was unpopular to transgress it.

Then came the years of plenty following the war—work for everyone and wages incredible. The day of eight hours and the week of five and one-half days came hand in hand. Saturday afternoon had become a holiday. There was a surplus of energy over and above the demands of the work. How to use this extra time at first presented no problem, for many new devices had grown up with prosperous times—movies, automobiles, radios, professional sports, golf clubs, bathing beaches, Coney Islands, and many other ways and places to spend money and find amusement. Leisure was no longer frowned upon as idleness; was no longer merely rest time to recuperate for more work. Instead, it became free time for a good time, and many of the good old Victorian moral standards were given unceremonious dismissal. This solution to the leisure problem seemed simple so long as prosperity continued, and workmen had both energy and money to spare.

Then came the depression and the despair of

disillusionment. Once more, leisure was viewed in a new light. For a time the word was not popular. It became confounded with unemployment and leisure time to the unemployed was nothing more than the specter of hours seeking work, of time to brood on the loss of savings or the collapse of life's cherished plans, of time spent in worries over the future welfare of self and family. This, however, was not a true conception of leisure, for true leisure can come only when material wants are satisfied and when there is also a surplus of means to satisfy the spiritual wants of men. True leisure is freedom from compulsion, time to do the thing one wants to do apart from earning a livelihood.

Out of the darkness of the depression, however, is now arising a new and nobler conception of leisure than America or any other nation has ever known. People are in a mood to appreciate and enjoy these newly found hours. People are becoming leisure-minded—leisure-conscious if you wish to call it so. As evidence of this fact note the amount of magazine space given to this topic in the years since 1900. The period of 1900-1905 showed an average of less than one article a year. From 1905-1910 there were two articles a year. From this time on the number increased gradually until 1934 when the previous high total was almost tripled, for in this year ninety-two articles from our leading magazines were listed in the *Digest*. This does not take account of the increasing flood of books, both philosophical and practical, that have appeared. In the effort to satisfy the increasing demand for reading on this subject, *Library Journal* devoted two of its issues in 1933 to suggested lists of books and articles on leisure-time pursuits.

We may conclude, therefore, that we as a people have come to realize that leisure is an inevitable part of our new social and economic order, a permanent part of our lives, and that we are taking a challenging attitude toward it. We no longer conceive of it as merely time for rest or entertainment. We are restoring to leisure the original meaning which came from the Greeks, namely, time for schooling or education. And even though we may never surpass the ancient Greeks in using leisure for the cultivation of the possibilities of human genius in the way of Art, Literature, Philosophy, and Athletics, it is conceivable that we will go beyond them in using leisure for social improvement and for bestowing happiness among the *masses* of our people.

This is the situation as it stands today and in which the need for a new program of leisure is evident. Any program for the new leisure necessarily will be a mixture of idealism and of practicality. While there are many things that we as physical educators can do in the immediate use of leisure, the satisfactory solution of this age-long problem rests only partially in the hands of any one group. There must be a social philosophy—a program of social reconstruction—that will accompany social progress in leisure as well as in every other field of human activity. Yet one searches for such a basic philosophy almost in vain in the writings now available.

Despite this lack of help, an attempt is made in the present article to formulate a platform for the new leisure which is based on certain underlying philosophical principles. In the suggested platform, there are ten planks.

1. *There must be opportunity for work.* It is essential that there be economic security for the individual if leisure in the true sense is to be enjoyed. Leisure is built upon a material foundation. The person who is starving or homeless, who is just barely managing to exist, has no anticipation in leisure. At either end of the social scale, the idler in poverty or the idler in wealth, leisure in its true sense is unknown. Life can be drab because of too much work and equally so because of too much time for purposeless living.

In this connection it is encouraging to note the present-day trend of social experiments to bring about security and independence for all. The projects to banish unemployment from our midst, the enactments against child labor, the proposals for old-age pensions, and unemployment insurance—these and others, are praiseworthy steps in general social progress and, from the standpoint of the topics we are discussing, toward the enjoyment of leisure and happiness in living.

2. The second plank is more visionary, but none the less necessary. *There must be a surplus of material belongings over and above mere physical existence.* To this end society must re-evaluate and properly reward the services rendered to it. If leisure is to realize its full meaning, there must be a surplus for the realization of the spiritual long-

ings of men, for the little luxuries and niceties that go to make up the intangible possessions of life.

Throughout all history, a laissez-faire attitude has prevailed in regard to this social problem. As a result, absurd inequalities stare us in the face every day. Permission for the use of a name on a brand of face cream or cigarettes, for example, yields more money than the average individual can make in years of whole-hearted service to society; an individual reaps a fortune for a commonplace invention while, at the same time, an individual who makes a worth-while discovery for the happiness and betterment of mankind, such as a toxin to prevent some dread disease like diphtheria, is rewarded, for the most part, by a notice in the newspaper and possibly by election to some learned society. Why should these inequalities in compensation prevail? With a more equitable distribution of returns for services, the average individual would have means beyond mere subsistence and the surplus could be used to satisfy cherished recreational longings.

3. *Education must help each individual to find the work best suited to his aptitudes and talents.* This means more emphasis on guidance so that in the long run each individual will find as much enjoyment and self-expression as possible in the work that he is doing. There will be then no sharp demarcation between his vocation and his leisure. In other words, there will be a play interest in his work which is denied the person engaged in monotonous machine work or work for which he is unfitted.

Accordingly as people enjoy their work, the leisure-time problem is alleviated, since there is less necessity for them to find self-expression elsewhere. There will always be people, however, not so fortunately situated and who must face each day the boredom and grind of uninspiring toil. With them, the leisure hours should compensate for the drudgery of the working day.

Because of the importance of guidance in the problem we are discussing, it is encouraging to note that schools are rapidly extending their contributions in this field. Many of the activities of the curriculum now have vocational significance, and the wise extension of extra-curricular activities and avocational pursuits is even more significant in helping students to explore and test out their true aptitudes and talents.

4. *There must be a popular understanding of the new meanings and contributions of play and recreation.* Play is no longer to be defined as aimless and frivolous activity. Instead, play is being interpreted as activity which is highly motivated and which gives self-expression to the individual. This emphasis on achievement, on self-expression, and on freedom, is the essence of the new spirit of play. Play is serious to the child and involves effort and persistence toward the development of skills for achievement and success. In this way it is different from recreation which is more concerned with the use of skills that have been largely mastered and which can be performed with ease and enjoyment. For that reason the *recreative* aspects of play grow more important as the individual grows older and his effort in work replaces the effort he formerly put in play.

This topic is dismissed briefly because educators are generally acquainted with the new meanings that play and recreation have assumed. Nevertheless, the lay public does not yet understand the educational possibilities of play although its attitude is rapidly changing in this respect. It is the function of the physical-education profession to point out, as L. P. Jacks, the English philosopher, has done, that education can be made interesting and, vice versa, that play is educational. The profession should promote the point of view that play *does* contribute to the fullest development of the human personality and should be valued, therefore, as it enriches life.

5. The fifth plank concerns the educator's duty to include *a conscious planning for education for leisure.* The schools have come to realize that many of their group and team activities, while making significant contributions to the health and social adjustments of boys and girls, do not have carry-over possibilities after graduation. From this standpoint there is coming to be more emphasis on such activities as tennis, swimming, volleyball, handball, badminton, and on games which can be played in middle age as well as in youth. In music the emphasis is not so much now on band instruments as upon singing and upon instruments that can be enjoyed alone without the assistance of other accompaniment. These leisure-time interests can most properly be inculcated in school days because we are coming more and more to realize that in our hours of relaxation we tend to

do the things we do well. The acquisition of skill is, therefore, an important foundation to the enjoyment of a certain hobby. As Jacks says, "Man is a skill-hungry animal." This is also an argument that well may answer anyone who asks why physical education should be compulsory. Many of the activities that are first but faintly liked or even actively disliked become popular when the individual gains some command over them and thus gets past the "dub" stage.

6. *A program of adult education is vital,* and probably there is no place where more progress has been made in leisure-time education in the past few years than in this field. One fact of interest to recreational leaders is that in adult classes the large per cent of the enrollment has been in what we call "recreational" activities. In addition to the informal participation, many requests have come for classes in recreative sports. Spectator appreciation has been enhanced through sport forums and clinics which explain the fine points of particular activities. Hobby classes and lecture series covering a wide range of special interests have also been very successful.

In other words, adults are seeking a knowledge and appreciation of activities neglected in their early education but for which they have come to feel a need and a longing. We used to think that adults were through with their formal education when they left school, but now we realize that education is a continuous process and that adults can learn skills in their avocations even though they may not be so inclined to try out their prowess as their would have at an earlier age. We conclude, therefore, that in addition to their previous use of free hours for rest, entertainment, games, and travel, adults are now using their increasing leisure to add to their cultural improvement and to the enrichment of their personalities. In short, education has become a new use of leisure time. This use makes education a life-long and a year-round process.

7. The seventh plank is concerned with *the emphasis that should be placed on the creative and educational as well as upon the physical types of recreations.* The physical recreations have been most emphasized in this paper because almost every normal individual has an interest in some of them and because they are contributive to health and sociability. At the same time, the level of refinement in music, reading, and the arts and crafts should be raised and the average individual should have a better appreciation of these activities even though he is not talented in them. There has been, in fact, marked development along these lines. The playground and camping programs have greatly expanded in creative fields. There is also evident an increasing interest on the part of the general public in matters of political and social concern and in matters formerly reserved to scientists and philosophers alone. This interest is responsible for the great increase in non-fiction books and in those bringing scientific knowledge down to the layman's understanding.

8. *More stress should be placed on participation in activities.* In spite of the progress already made, we are still too satisfied with strictly passive amusement. The utmost recreational enjoyment, however, comes from direct achievement rather than from that manufactured by others. This accounts for the fact that intramural sports are everywhere on the increase, that the camping movement is growing so rapidly, and that sports clubs and club movements are so popular. Participation in recreation also, as a rule, has the advantage of being less expensive than the spectator type, and it should therefore be more and more featured as an answer to the gift of leisure.

The need for participation with ensuing self-expression is universal to all mankind. It is the modern explanation of why we play and it accounts for the great popularity of play today when a large share of work is so mechanized that the spirit has all been squeezed out of it. This newer understanding has been instrumental in greatly widening the scope of the play curriculum, because the individual thereby has added chance to find some outlet for his talents and to achieve prestige in the eyes of his fellows. In this direction physical education has definite mental hygiene values—therapeutic contributions as yet only faintly realized.

The mental hygienists would have us realize that the dub needs self-expression as much as the expert. We must not expose the dub to failure always. We must find participating situations in which he has a chance of being successful. Otherwise, his only recourse is to indirect or vicarious satisfaction, which brings up the next point.

*(Concluded on page 188)*

# Social Trends in Physical Education

*By* JOHN F. BOVARD

"THE TROUBLE with you physical educators is that you claim the whole field of education" —so said a college professor. Had the statement been made that we considered our field the only approach to an education, we could have protested vigorously. Today the compartment idea of the subject matter dealt with in educational institutions has passed away, and the interrelations of all influences that can be brought to bear on the process of living are recognized. Physical education, then, is to be commended rather than reprimanded for attempting to give its subject matter interpretation in other ways than just the techniques of physical skills.

It is possible to analyze the purposes of physical education under four heads; there are at least four general underlying motives which actuate our program. First, there is the skills and physical developmental motive. This is the fundamental impetus which gave physical education its start in the United States. We are still interested in giving to the younger generation a strong body, a physique that will adequately see him through life, a regimen of living that will hold physical activity in a proper relationship.

Secondly, health education is an essential motive to direct work in physical education. While no one claims that exercise will be a cure-all for disease, nevertheless, properly functioning organs of the body getting their due amount of activity can deliver what is expected of them better than those organs that are unusued or abused. Such a program cannot be stereotyped, it must be intelligently directed. And by whom directed? Why, best of all by the individual concerned. Health education, then, must attempt to deal with the many phases of knowledge that can bring about this intelligent direction. No longer can this health instruction be content with benefits of exercise, or the laws of nutrition, or a knowledge of physiology, it must include also the relations of mind and body, the person as a whole. The factors that make for health may be quite obscure, quite complicated and very far reaching.

★ *John F. Bovard is Dean of the School of Physical Education at the University of Oregon. He is a graduate of the University of California (1903) where he also received the master's degree (1906) and doctor's degree (1917). Doctor Bovard became a member of Phi Delta Kappa at the University of Oregon in 1934.*

A third motive which has played an important part in our development as educators has been the social motive. When our attention was turned from big muscles and feats of strength to play and games, there were those who felt we were quite outside the field of education—play deserved no credit, it had no value other than a pastime. Soon, however, educators in the general scholastic field began to recognize good citizenship as a worthy objective of education and so opened the gates to physical education to assume a part in fulfilling this objective. It became apparent the playing fields were fine laboratories for exercise in the choosing of socially acceptable qualities such as leadership, good sportsmanship, courage, initiative, give and take, fairness, etc. Right choices and learning good procedures depend on good supervision. Under this impetus, we learned that a physical-education program encompasses more than just the physical skills; it invades that field of inter-relationship of people, it becomes a force in moulding human behavior, and it provides one of the opportunities for the unfolding of that thing we call personality.

And, a fourth motive that is still further expanding the scope of our work is what may be called the cultural motive. Physical Education cannot be content to minister to the physical and skill needs, to insist on an adequate knowledge of the mind and body for normal functioning, and to supply the means for social adjustments.

There is a still deeper meaning that can enrich the life of the individual. Activities, games, and sports have a significance in the development of peoples, countries, nations. English sports are a

corporate part of the culture of that nation. Wherever the English have settled new territory, they have carried their sports as a part of their civilization. Japan is accepting our western sports program. The contacts this competition with other nations will bring will be significant in the development of their fast changing philosophy.

But this understanding of national characteristics through sports is only one part of what we mean by the cultural motive. There is a reaction on the individual that is far more important. We must take responsibility for enlarging the student's viewpoint toward sports. He must become a good spectator as well as a good performer; he must understand the backgrounds of sports, the history, the techniques, the strategies, to give credit where credit is due; he must be intelligent in the sports field, he must display that tolerance and sympathy that marks a cultured gentleman in any other field. This can all be done without disparagement of the skills learning, as a supplement and broader approach over and above the few skills that any one person can master.

If, then, the work of physical education is to be interpreted in the light of the foregoing analysis, it is quite obvious that no high walls or narrow limits can be set up within which we are to operate. The social trend is too marked to be passed by, nor does this mean that we are to take the most significant part in social training, that we are the chief agent for adjustment in a living, changing world of people. It does point distinctly to the fact that we must recognize our place as one of the agencies for this modern type of education, that each subject in the curriculum has its place, and that the recognition of the interrelationship of all these influences is the common ground for effective work.

What are some of the observations which indicate the trends in physical education? One is certainly that physical education ministers to both mind and body. Many educational institutions still believe that we should be concerned with a muscular-skills education, and are, therefore, out of the curriculum. The old idea of the dual make-up of the individual is so out of date that such a position is marvelous in its conservatism. If education is concerned with developing broad sympathies, tolerance for ideas, understanding of human behavior, ability to make decisions, and enlargement of scope of knowledge, then physical education has a distinct contribution to make. Can a program actuated by the social motive or the cultural motive fail to contribute to man as a whole, his physical and intellectual being?

Much has been said these days about personality. Psychology, sociology, and medicine have contributed much to the study of this field. The abnormal or accentuated types excited attention first, but now we are beginning to analyze the more normal course of the growth and development of this thing we call personality. If, as seems to be the result of some of this work, personal traits are moulded or forced to conform to certain patterns in the first few years of life, then physical education is highly important as these are the years of play, the years when physical activities are major elements in the life of the boy or girl. There must be a better understanding of personality development by physical educators, a definite cooperative effort on the part of psychologists, sociologists, mental hygienists and physical educators.

Dr. Berg speaks of personality as a psycho-physical pattern, a totality acting and reacting against a background. Personality is the "sum total of the traits of the individual plus the volition, all integrated into an harmonious hierarchy." We must think of the students as to their whole make-up. Just ministering to their skill techniques is not enough. What we do for them may have far-reaching results.

Not the least of the social trends of physical education is the contribution to leisure-time problems. Leisure time should carry a question mark after it, for few people have it, and those who do usually do not want it, and those who do not have it should have some. The problem is deeper than that expressed by the desire to have "more time than we know what to do with." It is the problem of a well-balanced life. The one who has solved the leisure-time need is the one who can so order his life that all phases of living are considered and adjusted.

Physical education has a long way to go in building a program that can properly contribute to this phase of living. It should supply the leadership that will present the plan for relating activities to the whole course of our lives. That activities are not solely for the adolescent is recognized but there

is still much to be done for the mature person. We need the imagination, the inventive genius, to create games and sports in which the older person can get enjoyment as well as the younger. We need the wisdom to discern the changes in society so that these physical-education requirements can assume their proper place. City officials and recreation commissions need to be educated to the needs of the whole citizenship, not only to those of the boys and girls. Psychologists now are willing to admit that we can still learn after we are fifty; is there any good reason why we cannot lead an active physical life up to that time? To the English who have been brought up on a sports program, it is unthinkable that one must retire from active sports at 21, or on graduation from college.

Physical education can well look into its school program. The lack of variety leads to the complete boredom of many young people before they even graduate from the high school. A few sports played over and over again, nothing new from year to year, leads to a decision against any further work in this field; pleasure is gone out of it. There is great need for more kinds of activities, adapted to the age level. Why play basketball for eight years?

If, during these school years, personalities are developing, and if activities are one means of expression, and if on the play-field adjustment to problems of social significance are being properly made or made poorly, then the programs which physical educators plan for a school system are exceedingly important and deserving of a significant place in the curriculum. The ability to adjust as a result of understanding is one of the secrets of mental health—our school program should be rich in these opportunities.

Leis has said, "School time is choosing time," and so it is. During the school period we sample many kinds of human experience. From the richness of this experience we find the things we like and dislike. That physical education has been treated lightly in the school program, inadequately scheduled, poorly taught from lack of personnel and adequately trained personnel, is one of the main reasons why it plays so small a part in adult life. If our mature society is to recognize a program of diverse activities as a part of its normal living, it is right to expect that this idea will have its roots in a rich, well-planned, interesting school curriculum.

Physical education does not justify itself, then, purely because it deals with training in certain skills. Its future lies also in what it can contribute to the development of a happy, well-adjusted individual in his social group. Physical education must contribute to the general education of the student; it must recognize its responsibilities in personality development; it must contribute to his leisure-time program. To all these social objectives physical education can contribute much.

## Interscholastic Regulations

The following recommendations were made by a committee of superintendents in California as to general policies which should govern interscholastic events. They were submitted to the Superintendents' Association with the further recommendation that they be forwarded to the Association of Secondary-School Principals. Information is not available as to the action taken by either body.—Editor.

1. All interscholastic championship games, in so far as possible, should be limited to local leagues.

2. There should be a revision of the organization of local leagues, considering size of schools, and limiting the number of schools in the league so as to reduce the number of games.

3. With the exception of San Diego, Bakersfield, Eureka, and possibly a few other places, long distance travel by athletic teams, involving staying over night, should be eliminated.

4. American football should not be played in grades below the tenth.

5. The discus and javelin throws, as athletic activities in the high schools of the state, should be abandoned.

6. Spring and summer football practice by all schools should be eliminated.

7. The use of the terms "major" and "minor" sports should be eliminated and the proper emphasis placed on all sports according to their educational values to those who participate.

8. More emphasis should be placed upon the sports that follow through into after-school years, such as volley-ball, handball, golf, tennis, and swimming.

9. Athletic awards of intrinsic value should be eliminated and school letters should be substituted for all students who meet the minimum requirements in mental, social, and physical efficiency.

10. The reduction to an absolute minimum of ticket selling within the school for athletic contests should be effected.

11. Emphasis on interscholastic athletics should be decreased and on intramural athletics increased.

*(Concluded on page 188)*

# The Rhythmically Functioning Body

*By* EMIL RATH

THE WORD, polyrhythmics, refers to a variety of rhythmic activities which, when practiced regularly, will develop a rhythmically functioning body and certain concomitant outcomes valuable in life, as, strong vital organs and muscular system, well developed rhythmic sense, all-round skill and symmetrical development, an appreciation of "good form" and expression in movement, and ability to conform to group action. These activities have been termed "polyrhythmics" (many, varied rhythmics) to distinguish them particularly from the girls' dance steps and because they include a diversity of activities not generally found under the term rhythmics. They are intended for boys.

In a discussion of polyrhythmics, questions arise about the nature of rhythm, forms of rhythmic manifestations, and, based on these, principles fundamental for the teaching of rhythmic activities; also, polyrhythmics in relation to the boy's nature, reasons for their place in a boy's education. their classification for instruction, and, finally, the aim and outcomes of this type of training.

The great German musician, Von Buelow, is credited with the statement, "In the beginning there was rhythm" (*Im Anfang war der Rhythmus*). The implications of this thought are unlimited in extent. The universe, in all its complexity and grandeur holds to a rhythmic course. The rhythm of nature influences every breathing and growing thing in the world and governs us through its rhythmic changes of day and night and of the seasons of the year. It is not incongruous, then, that human beings should possess so many physiological functions rhythmic in nature. Sir Arthur Shipley,[5] has devoted a chapter in his book, "Life," to the bodily functions that operate rhythmically.

With these rhythmic manifestations in and about him it is not surprising that man has occupied himself with trying to understand these phenomena. The ancient Greeks considered rhythm a principle that permeated the universe. Plato, Aristotle and Lucian have expressed themselves on this subject. In modern literature Spencer has devoted a chapter to rhythm in his "First Principles."[6] A vast literature has developed dealing with rhythm and meter. While opinions expressed are by no means unanimous, certain facts appear common to most writers. Rhythm is described by Sonnenschein[3] as a property of a regular sequence of events that impresses its temporal regulation upon the mind; and Isaacs[3] describes rhythm as the mental experience of a reflex response, like a free swinging pendulum motion of the arm or leg to a stimulus which may be regular or irregular, accented or unaccented, grouped or ungrouped, and Klages[1] says rhythm is some sort of regulated repetition of certain appearances in time.

Klages has devoted considerable thought to differentiating between rhythm and meter. To him meter is the result of an intellectual process while rhythm is of the spirit. Meter results when we break a rhythmic flow marking the beginning and ending of its parts. Those who understand music have often realized how difficult it is to discern the time or metrical division of a melody. It requires concentrated effort while the melody is acquired spontaneously.

We find a comparable difference between metrical and flowing (melodic) rhythm of bodily movements. For example, flexion and extension repeated require renewed volitional impulses for each repetition, that is, effort. But a body part,

★ *Emil Rath is Director of Physical and Health Education of the public schools of Indianapolis, Indiana. He received his bachelor's and master's degrees in physical education at the Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union at Indianapolis. He became a member of Phi Delta Kappa at Indiana University, where he received his A.M. degree and where he has done additional graduate work toward the doctor's degree.*

like the arms, properly relaxed and started swinging will continue rhythmically without effort for a number of swings, and gradually come to a stop.

Rhythm is beautifully illustrated in nature when concentric rings of wavelets are set up by dropping an object into a small pool. Here we have a distinctly "regulated repetition of certain appearances in time" by which all of the water is affected, a totality process, if we may so describe it.

There are also rhythmic condensations and diffusion of water particles as illustrated by the crests and troughs of the waves, like a rise and fall of energy. In rhythmic movements there are similar conditions, for example, the phase of muscular contraction or tenseness alternated with a phase of muscular relaxation or non-tenseness. These characteristics common to the nature of rhythm suggest themselves as principles fundamental for rhythmic performances. There are four of primary importance.

1. The principle of continuity or flowing rhythm. Activities are rhythmic if they are flowing in nature, if there prevails "a regulated repetition of certain movements-in-time." Once started they continue: (a) uninterruptedly, reflexly, as in walking; (b) needing only a slight volitional impulse to keep them going; as continued swinging of body parts, or performing easy rhythmic steps; (c) because a vigorous initial effort starts each movement of a series, as striking with rebounding, or starts a rhythmic sequence as the mazurka or schottische run; (b) and (c) differ only in degree of effort. Both also involve reflex movements. Once started with either a mild or powerful impulse the movement or chain of movements continues to flow reflexly to completion until again initiated. Most polyrhythmic activities are of this nature.

2. The principle of metrical or broken rhythm. Activities are in metrical rhythm if the flow of movement is interrupted by frequent and regular breaks; if renewed volitional impulses are required to start them again after each break. For example, stepping, stopping, stepping, etc.; thrusting, flexing arms, thrusting again, etc. In each example an additional volitional impulse is required to begin the movement again. Some polyrhythmic activities are of this nature.

3. The principle of totality. Rhythmic movements involve the entire body; they are totality movements; static muscular contractions are avoided. The movement is started in the trunk and flows to the extremities. Localized movements involving only arms or legs receive emphasis only in relation to the body as a whole, which is swinging rhythmically at the same time though in a lesser degree.

4. The principle of relaxation. In rhythmic activities there is a constant alternation of stress and non-stress phases, of muscular tenseness and non-tenseness. Examples of 3 and 4 are body swings and the golf and batting swings when repeated for practice purposes. Movements performed while certain muscle groups are held in static contraction are not of this kind.

A fifth characteristic of rhythm in nature and in bodily performances is the non-recurrence of a movement in the precise manner as its predecessor. No two rhythmic movements and no two rhythmic manifestations in nature are precisely alike. No wave or bodily swing is exactly like its predecessor. Therefore, no effort need be made in teaching rhythmic activities to have precise uniformity. There may be and will be similarity, but no precise identity as was often found in the well performed old type Swedish and German free exercises. This free rhythmic manner of performance reveals individuality and allows opportunity for self-expression.

While this characteristic of non-identity of movements, of individual expression, is important it does not serve as a guiding principle. We can not urge pupils to express their individuality. This happens without their will, but teachers may encourage it. Limited, uncertain movements due to bodily inhibitions and suggestive of fear and lack of confidence should grow into free, large, flowing types suggestive of courage and assurance. These principles apply with equal force to girls' rhythmic activities.

Rhythmic activities are in themselves satisfying[2] because rhythm is a pleasure-giving factor.[4] To "dance for joy" is a traditional saying, but the correlative, joy comes from dancing, is also true if we accept the James-Lange theory of emotions.

Rhythmic activities build original tendencies into aesthetic emotions. Aesthetic emotions grow into artistic appreciations. Why should not boys be taught the appreciation of beauty in movement so that they may find enjoyment in the perform-

ances of great dancers, skaters, divers and of motor activities in general? Participation in rhythmic activities develops an appreciation of good "form" and cultivates the aesthetic sense in this respect.

There is a difference between the nature of boys and girls that reveals itself at the beginning of adolescence. Sex characteristics appear. With the appearance of adolescent traits, many boys avoid the more feminine activities, sometimes because of fear of ridicule. They prefer the more masculine type. The average boy is still interested in folk dances providing they are more vigorous, acrobatic and athletic; providing they offer a challenge. He wants to hop, leap, and jump just as girls do but higher and farther. Activities should be selected to satisfy this natural desire. As adolescence progresses this tendency increases. However, if the education of the boy is properly directed at this time he will willingly participate even in social dancing.

Moreover, most of the girls' physical activities, excepting some forms of dancing, are the same as boys'. Girls play every game that boys play excepting football and hard baseball. They dive, swim, skate, fence, tumble, do apparatus and track and field work. Boys like to tap dance and in many schools social dancing is taught. The difference between girls' and boys' activities, particularly in the vigorous sports mentioned, is in the rules governing some of them and in the nature of the performance of others.

It is in this latter respect that polyrhythmics, too, should differ from girls' rhythmics. The adolescent boy's changing view of life, his changed attitude and behavior toward girls makes him doubtful about the fitness of his acts and often extremely self-conscious. Parents and teachers should gradually introduce him into this new reality, help him adjust himself smoothly and with as little emotional disturbance as possible. Participation in polyrhythmics will give some help in this process by developing bodily control and self-confidence in the social dances and games. There is no difference between pre-adolescent boys and girls. Changes appear after this period, but there is still considerable similarity in the nature and in the likes and dislikes of adolescent boys and girls. This is also found in men and women. David Starr Jordan has pointed out that ninety per cent of the women possess some degree of masculinity and ninety per cent of the men, some degree of femininity. The amount of this quality found in any one individual varies from a low to a very high degree. There are women extremely masculine and extremely feminine in type. While these two extremes are to be found at the ends of the scale the majority fall between, distributing themselves according to the normal probability curve. The same spread in regard to femininity is found among men.

Therefore, why not rhythmic activities for boys? They are more in need of this type of training, particularly during adolescence, than girls. Awkwardness is a characteristic of this stage of their development. It often appears in boys of the fifth grade. While polyrhythmics involves training of the body as a unit, emphasis is placed mainly on cultivating dexterity of the legs and feet. It is with the pedal extremities that boys have their troubles. Polyrhythmics helps the boy to overcome this awkwardness and gives him confidence and assurance in his actions and appearance.

A study of city and state syllabi of Health and Physical Education made in the fall of 1932 and replies to questions on rhythmics for boys addressed recently to directors of Health and Physical Education of twenty large cities revealed the following:

1. There is an increase in time devoted to rhythmic activities.

2. In most schools, rhythmic education, particularly folk dances, for boys is discontinued after the sixth grade.

3. A few syllabi suggested rhythmic activities for boys for grade seven and above.

4. Some form of rhythmic activity is carried on beyond the seventh grade.

Acrobatic, clog and tap dancing, fundamental rhythms, social dancing and marching (performing tactical maneuvers in walking) and free exercises (probably the old type of setting-up exercises) were mentioned. The last two, consisting of the activities described within the parentheses, would probably not be included under rhythmics by many teachers, but acrobatic dancing and fundamental rhythms, referring to steps, are included in polyrhythmics.

On the other hand walking, as a rhythmic performance, and the new type of rhythmic swinging

movements, sometimes a part of rhythmic gymnastics, instead of setting-up work, would be included. The replies indicated that folk dancing was discontinued in the fourth grade or below in a few instances; it was optional in the intermediate grades of two schools.

The information gleaned from these brief studies is too meager to serve as a basis for a definite conclusion but it does indicate the trend. Rhythmics for boys have not yet been given their proper place in the school program. This is due mainly to the fact that many men who are in charge of the boys' physical education have had no training in rhythmics and, therefore, cannot direct these activities. This fact was frequently mentioned in the replies to the inquiry. To attempt such instruction without proper preparation will lead to failure. As a result, boys will dislike rhythmics and may find fault with the activities instead of with the teacher.

Rhythmics are not easy to teach and they require a broad knowledge of, what may be termed, the science of movement and some knowledge of music. The term "the science of movement" as used here refers to "the technique of general activities of life" in contrast to the narrow conception of techniques of some sports, as track and field techniques, game (all kinds) techniques, dance techniques, etc., phases of which are to be found in some parts of polyrhythmics.

The activities comprising this part of physical education are divided into preparatory, locomotor and stationary activities, their combinations, and compositions. The preparatory activities condition the body and develop a state of readiness. They have been named rhythmic conditioning activities. They make of the human body a flexible, responsive instrument. Internal and external inhibitions are removed to achieve this. Stiff joints are made supple; shortened muscles and tight ligaments stretched; fear and other emotional disturbances, causing tenseness, are dispelled.

Three classes of exercises are used for this: (1) movements to supple joints and re-establish and maintain the complete range of motion in joints, e. g., (a) circling and swinging movements, (b) flexion and extension movements; (2) tissue stretching movements to remove interference with motion. The action in the shoulder and hip joints is generally interfered with by shortened pectoral and hamstring muscles. Such interferences must be removed for these conditions inhibit free flow of movement and therefore make rhythmic performances stilted; (3) relaxing movements. Ability to relax to such an extent that unnatural tense muscular conditions will disappear is necessary. This result is established by practicing the relaxation of body parts after they have been purposely tensed. There are degrees of relaxation. Ability to relax increases with practice. This ability is essential for rhythmic responses.

In addition, certain muscle groups must be strengthened to establish good posture and harmony of action and make possible, when the occasion requires, a forceful rhythmic performance.

These preparatory activities are basic for rhythmics and make the cultivation of the rhythmic sense possible. They go hand in hand with the locomotor and stationary rhythms. The first develops a condition of readiness so the rhythmic sense can function and then, with the aid of the latter, it is further cultivated.

Locomotor activities consist of walking, running, leaping, hopping, galloping and similar activities. While primarily locomotor in nature they may also be performed in place as stationary activities.

To establish and improve the rhythmic response these activities should be performed as totality movements. That is, the pupil should be taught the correct technique of using his whole body in the performance: correct movements of arms and other body parts involved, elimination of unnecessary tenseness and proper timing and stressing of certain phases of every activity. Each activity presents different problems and challenges the boy's skill, strength and dexterity.

The stationary activities consist of:

1. Body swings; to develop action of the body as a whole in which phases of tensing and non-tensing are rhythmically alternated. The pupil learns about the action of gravity, muscular force and momentum in relation to swings.

2. Balancing; to improve ability to make automatic adjustments to maintain equilibrium. These abilities are valuable in all of life's activities, especially tensing and non-tensing in sports like swimming, golf, tennis, track and field and others.

3. Arm activities, that is, activities in which arms are mainly involved and lead in the move-

ments like throwing, hurling, striking and other combative movements, pushing and pulling and other mimetics.

4. Weight transference to develop ability to quickly shift body weight in any direction and make rapid adjustment.

5. Knee flexion and extension activities. While primarily performed as stationary activities these may also be practiced as locomotor forms. They may be modified in many ways and combined in various ways with each other or with activities of the preceding group.

Compositions suitable for boys comprise another group of polyrhythmics. The scope of this article prohibits discussion of this important group. These groups of rhythmic activities are but an introduction to the dance as an art form.

At the beginning it was stated that polyrhythmics develops a "rhythmically functioning body." Having explained the meaning of the term and, briefly, the subject matter involved, a more definite description of a "rhythmically functioning body" is necessary.

A rhythmic body functions economically. Knowing how to use the relaxing principle automatically in life activities saves energy. Moreover, the body functions easily and gracefully because its movements are properly co-ordinated and timed. No wasteful movement is made, which would dissipate energy. Furthermore, "rhythmically functioning" involves ability to respond readily to various kinds of rhythmic stimuli. This, then is the aim of polyrhythmics.

Some of the outcomes which may be expected, directly or as concomitants are:

1. The circulatory and respiratory organs are stimulated and strengthened because much springing and vigorous bodily movements are performed.

2. The muscular system is strengthened for the same reasons, but also made an instrument of skill.

3. The sense of rhythm is cultivated. The nervous system is trained to accurately conduct and to inhibit impulses so that co-ordinations of varying complexity result correctly; also, so that movements are properly timed in relation to each other. This outcome simplifies the learning of new activities.

4. An all-round skill and symmetrical development of the body results because of the variety of activities involved.

5. An appreciation of "good form" and of "beauty in movement" is acquired from practice and observation. Pupils learn to evaluate dancing, skating, and other motor activities from these points of view.

6. Ability to conform to group action is cultivated.

7. Pupils acquire a knowledge of how to relax and how to use movements to keep physically fit.

In conclusion, polyrhythmics is a form of rhythmic activity for boys which will develop a rhythmically functioning body; the outstanding characteristics of these activities are the same as those of rhythm in nature and are expressed as rhythmic principles which govern the teaching of all rhythmics; the activities are of a nature to interest boys of the upper elementary grades, of junior and senior high school; the activities are classified in four groups, preparatory, locomotor, stationary and compositions; the cultivation of the sense of rhythm is important in achieving the aim and the outcomes of polyrhythmics.

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4. Sears, Chas. H. *Studies in Rhythm,* p. 14. Worcester, Massachusetts: Clark University, 1902.

5. Shipley, Sir Arthur E. *Life,* chap. XII, pp. 133-59. New York: Macmillan Co., 1925.

6. Spencer, Herbert. *First Principles,* chap. X, pp. 212-30. New York: P. F. Collier & Son.

# School Plant a Recreation Center

California Boards of Education and school administrators are genuinely interested in extending the use of their school plants for recreational purposes. When the public schools of California close for the summer period, a million and a half youngsters are released. This number represents approximately one-fourth of the population of the state. The leisure of such a huge group of children becomes a major social problem of the state and community. Extending the use of the school plants, under proper leadership, is a contribution to youth in which every community leader should be interested.—W. H. Orion, *California Schools,* May, 1936.

# A Selected Bibliography in Physical and Health Education

*By* D. OBERTEUFFER

THERE is much of value in current literature in the field of Physical and Health Education. It is with no little difficulty of selection that a brief annotated bibliography is here recommended. Representative volumes in each of the areas have been chosen with the purpose in mind of assisting the professional public in general to enrich their concept of physical and health education and thus, in turn, to improve and develop their programs.

★ *D. Oberteuffer is Professor of Physical Education at Ohio State University. He is a graduate of The University of Oregon (1923) and received the master's (1924) and doctor's (1929) degrees from Teachers College of Columbia University. He became a member of Phi Delta Kappa at The University of Oregon in 1923.*

### THE ADMINISTRATION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Hughes, W. L. *Administration of Health and Physical Education in Colleges.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1935.

One of the best volumes giving administrative help. Has wealth of material on organization, program, intramural athletics, buildings, equipment. Although intended for colleges, would serve as excellent reference for all school administrators.

Lloyd, Deaver, and Eastwood. *Safety in Athletics.* Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1936.

Authoritative, helpful information on safety provisions, hazards, accidents in specific sports and the general program. Also chapters on administrative controls and treatment of injuries.

Nash, J. B. *The Organization and Administration of Playgrounds and Recreation.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1927.

A heavily documented compendium of useful information on community recreation drawn from wide experience of author. Problems of space, school building use, personnel, finance, program are treated.

Nash, J. B. *Administration of Physical Education.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1931.

Contains good administrative suggestions on general program from elementary through college. Some extraneous material but all heavily documented. Legal machinery, objectives, internal organization, plant, schedules, classification, supervision, and leadership.

National Recreation Association. *Play Areas, Their Design and Equipment.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1928.

Well illustrated, 200 pages of advice on how to build or lay it out. Has chapters on pools, game areas, play fields, athletic fields, construction of apparatus, and beautification.

Rogers, F. R. *Fundamental Administrative Measures in Physical Education.* Newton, Mass.: Pleiades Co., 1932.

Bases administration of activities on measurement and classification, using physical-fitness index.

U. S. Office of Education Pamphlets. Washington: Government Printing Office. *High-School Buildings and Grounds; Municipal and School Playgrounds and Their Management; Park Recreation Areas in the United States; School Grounds and Play; School Playgrounds.*

Write for lists of helpful pamphlets.

Williams, J. F., and Brownell, C. L. *Health and Physical Education for School Administrators.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931.

Questions and answers on health service, health supervision, health instruction, and physical education. Concise and written expressly for the school administrator.

Williams, J. F., and Hughes, W. L. *Athletics in Education.* Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders & Co., 1930.

A consideration of athletics in their relationship to education. Chapters on aims, program, personnel, athletic organization, purchasing, management, health supervision, and current controversies. Contains a splendid annotated bibliography.

### TEACHING PROBLEMS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Anderson, L. *An Athletic Program for Elementary Schools.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1927.

A splendid analysis of games and game skills for the elementary and junior high-school levels. Gives fundamental game elements and shows necessary progression in teaching of motor skills in games graded according to difficulty. Includes a games program for fall, winter, and spring seasons; also a compilation of skill tests which children could easily administer.

Bovard, J. F., and Cozens, F. W. *Tests and Measurements in Physical Education.* Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1930.

Not only an interesting history of testing in the field of physical education, but also descriptions of various strength, cardio-vascular, athletic ability, motor ability, and achievement tests. Excellent reasons stated why certain tests are recommended and others excluded. A brief discussion covers the use of statistics in analyzing and interpreting data gathered from tests or for the purpose of setting up new tests.

Draper, Edgar M., and Smith, George M. *Intramural Athletics and Play Days.* New York: A. S.. Barnes & Co., 1930.

The philosophy of intramural athletics, with practical suggestions for promotion. It includes the new philosophy of play days.

Hillas, Marjorie, and Knighton, Marion. *An Athletic Program for High School and College Women.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1929.

The method, technique, and procedure of a comprehensive program based on modern principles of education.

Horrigon, Olive K. *Creative Physical Education.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1931.

Offers valuable suggestions for effective interpretation in the elementary school program. Methods of teaching are discussed which illustrate clearly how the physical education activities are related to large units of work. Includes description of games, dramatizations, rhythms, music.

McCloy, C. H. *The Measurement of Athletic Power.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1932.

Since the present programs of physical education in the schools and colleges embrace athletic activities, the author has established a battery of tests of reasonably high validity, which indicate with surprising regularity the level of "athletic power" of an individual. This group of tests may be used for the purpose of classification, motivation, and grading.

Mitchell, E. D. *Intramural Athletics.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1933.

Plentiful suggestions on intramural organization, useful at any level. Practical helps on team, tournament, schedule arrangements.

Neilson, N. P., and Van Hagen, Winifred. *Physical Education for Elementary Schools.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1931.

Exceptionally fine reference book for the elementary-school teacher; contains material for grades 1 to 8, including rhythms, games of low organization, folk dancing, stunts, and athletic games. Contains information regarding classification and organization of activities, suggestions for intramural activities and play days.

Nixon, E. W., and Cozens, F. W. *An Introduction to Physical Education.* Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1934.

Purposes, objectives, place in education, school and college programs described for the beginning professional student. Not too technical, but sound.

Rathbone, Josephine L. *Corrective Physical Education.* Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1935.

This book presents basic information concerning the nature of physical handicaps and gives excellent suggestions for working with handicapped individuals in physical education programs.

Sharman, Jackson R. *The Teaching of Physical Education.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1936.

Many helpful chapters for teachers of any level on such matters as class organization and management, methods of presentation, planning instruction, the nature of the individual and the hygiene of instruction. Good sections on individual differences and measurement of results.

Rogers, F. R. *Tests and Measurement Programs in the Redirection of Physical Education.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927.

Author recommends and shows how to classify students by means of strength tests. Such testing allows for individualization of program and greater motivation of student.

University of Michigan, Staff of the Department of Physical Education for Women. *Physical Education Activities for High-School Girls.* Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger, 1928.

Comprehensive and detailed information on a complete physical education program for high-school girls.

### Principles, Objectives, and Philosophy of Physical Education

Hetherington, Clark W. *School Program in Physical Education.* Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1922.

A brief basic philosophy of child growth and development through physical education. Fundamental to any thinking on aims and purposes in the field.

Jacks, L. P. *Education Through Recreation.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1932.

Emphasizes continuous process of education whether in school or out. Shows importance of quality of education going on in play situations. Excellent picture of whole or total development as essential.

Mitchell, E. D., and Mason, B. S. *The Theory of Play.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1934.

Imposing 500-page volume on all aspects of play. Sets forth concepts of its nature, needs for play, play and growth, citizenship, character, and one large section on play administration.

Nash, J. B. *Interpretations of Physical Education.* 5 vols. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1931.

Vol. I is a series of discussions concerned with the physiological basis for physical education activities. Vol. II deals with measureable abilities of the individual as basis for guidance. Vol. III discusses character formation in reference to physical education. Vol. IV presents the physiological factors which contribute to the health of the individual, and Vol. V contains a discussion of the professional preparation of teachers.

Neumyer, M. H., and Esther S. *Leisure and Recreation.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1936.

A study of leisure and recreation in their sociological aspects. Discusses rise of new leisure, conditioning factors such as climate, population, health, inventions, and economic conditions. Changing uses of leisure, recreation in modern life, group aspects, play theories, all discussed clearly and rather completely.

Rogers, R. F. *The Future of Interscholastic Athletics.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929.

Provocative discourse on trends in competitive sport. Speaks frankly and with intelligence on matters of championships, associations, amateurism, eligibility, controls.

Williams, Jesse F. *Principles of Physical Education.* Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1927.

Defines the principles which underlie physical education and shows the relationship of these principles to education in general. Shows origins of modern physical education in nature of man and in current political, economic, and educational thought. This book, more often than any other, is used as the base for development in the field.

### History of Physical Education

Forbes, C. A. *Greek Physical Education.* New York: Century Co., 1929.

Gardiner, E. N. *Athletics of the Ancient World.* New York: Oxford University Press, 1930.

Leonard, F. W. *A Guide to the History of Physical Education.* Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger, 1923.

Leonard, F. W. *History of Physical Education.* Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger, 1919.

Rice, E. A. *A Brief History of Physical Education.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1927.

All the foregoing histories make unique and good contributions. None are complete, covering all historical aspects of the physical education of man.

### Physiology of Exercise

Gould, A. G., and Dye, J. A. *Exercise and Its Physiology.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1932.

A digest of the principal facts resulting from many of the most important studies in this field of physiology. The language employed is non-technical and it may serve as a textbook and reference.

Schneider, Edward C. *Physiology of Muscular Activity.* Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1933.

Excellent descriptions of effects of activity upon vital systems drawn from original research and other competent sources.

### The Health of the School Child

Averill, Lawrence A. *Hygiene of Instruction: A Study of the Mental Health of the School Child.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1928.

A book, especially for teachers, which considers mental hygiene, its fundamental principles, deviations from the normal, as represented by various types of problem children, and ways to foster mental health.

Keene, Charles H. *Physical Welfare of the School Child.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1929.

Kerr, James. *Fundamentals of School Health.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1927.

Both of the foregoing are basic sources on the health of the child in school. Authoritative and broad in scope. All phases from ventilation and safety to growth and nutrition are given helpful and informing treatment.

Terman, Lewis M., and Almack, John C. *The Hygiene of the School Child.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1929.

A careful study of the essentials for growth of children and ways in which the schools may help children to grow healthfully.

White House Conference. *Growth and Development of the Child.* 4 vols. New York: Century Co., 1930.

Treats the factors contributing to the growth and development of children. Centered largely upon normal growth; deals also with obstacles to normal growth and development.

Wood, Thomas D., and Lerrigo, Marion O. *Health Behavior.* Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1927.

Scales of health habits, attitudes, and knowledge which should be acquired at different ages in order to develop a healthy organism, a healthy personality, and a healthy home and community. Scales are included for junior and senior high school students.

### School Health Organization

Averill, L. A. *Educational Hygiene.* Chicago: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1926.

Contains many helpful suggestions for the health service and health education programs, including graded outlines for junior high schools.

Chenoweth and Selkirk. *School Health Problems.* New York: F. S. Crofts, 1936.

Most recent of the good books on school health education. Excellent chapters on laws of growth, nutrition, physical examinations, communicable disease control, vision, acoustics, special classes, mental health, and accidents.

Grout, Ruth. *Handbook of Health Education.* New York: Doubleday-Doran, 1937.

Compendium of practical outlines and information taken directly from field. Outlines feasible instruction program for elementary years in rural situations.

Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association. *Health Education—A Program for Public Schools and Teacher Training Institutions.* Revised Edition. Washington: National Education Association, 1930.

Discusses health conditions in the United States and the part which education plays in producing a healthy nation as well as essential subject-matter for the teacher. An authoritative but brief outline of the

scope and opportunity for health education in American schools.

Rogers, James F. *The Health of the Teacher.* School Health Studies No. 12, Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1926.

Presents statistics on absences of teachers due to illness. The responsibility of the training school, the school officials, and of the teacher herself is discussed.

Stack, Herbert James. *Safety Education in the Secondary Schools: Objectives and Materials of Instruction.* New York: National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, 1929.

Procedures in the organization of a curriculum in safety education for junior and senior high schools. Contains approximately 60 pages of curriculum materials and activities.

Turner, Clair Elsmere. *Principles of Health Education.* New York: D. C. Heath & Co., 1932.

Develops backgrounds and underlying principles relating to purpose and administration.

*White House Conference of 1930.* New York: Century Co., 1931.

Reports of the addresses, discussions, and committees of the White House Conference in its meetings in November, 1930. The section on education and training contains much that is of interest to school teachers and administrators concerning the essentials of a school health program, the school plant, health service, health curriculum, administration, personnel, teacher preparation, and needs of special groups.

Williams, Jesse F., and Shaw, Fannie B. *Methods and Materials of Health Education.* New York: Nelson, 1935.

Helpful information for both teacher and administrator. Excellent chapter on nature of the child. Others on details of health service, curriculum construction, materials for teaching, measurement, and the health of the teacher.

Wood, Thomas D., and Rowell, Hugh G. *Health Through Prevention and Control of Diseases.* Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1925.

The plan or program set forth is intended for both school people and parents. Some of the subjects treated are: what the home, the school, and the pupil can do to control disease; how to know which children are susceptible; how to discover health disorders, and what to do when they are discovered; what to do in a classroom exposed to contagious disease; how to plan for re-admission of pupils; standards for exclusion and quarantine; classroom reports with sample charts; how the different contagious diseases are spread.

Wood, Thomas D., and Rowell, H. G. *Health Supervision and Medical Inspection of Schools.* Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1928.

Voluminous treatment of all aspects of title. Standard, basic work. Whole field of school health education covered; not all parts equally well, but book contains a wealth of significant information.

## Periodicals and Bibliographies

Chayer, Mary Ella. *Bibliography in Health Education for Schools and Colleges.* New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1936.

In book form, a thorough bibliography on all phases of school health education with some notes.

Lies, Eugene T. *The New Leisure Challenges the Schools.* Washington: National Education Association, 1933.

The bibliographical section under "Physical Education" lists twenty carefully selected references which cover the various aspects of the field briefly but adequately; and that, together with the Bibliography on Recreation, provides a nucleus for the physical education library of teacher or administrator.

McCloy, C. H. "Bibliography of Health and Physical Education," *Research Quarterly,* Vol. III, No. 3 (October, 1932), pp. 3-78.

A complete compilation for professional research. Not annotated. Contents arranged alphabetically, covering material to December 31, 1931. A revised bibliography will be published in the *Research Quarterly* every five years which will include all the books published in the field of physical education and related activities.

Ryan, W. C. *Literature of School and College Athletics.* New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1929.

Excerpts, sources, and notes on probably all phases of the development and current state of athletics.

Woodring, Maxie N., and Schwendener, Norma. *Enriched Teaching of Physical Education in the High School.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929.

A carefully selected and annotated source book for teachers of physical education, camp counselors, and recreation leaders especially. Particularly helpful in listing sources of free and low-cost materials.

*Digest of Physical Education, Health, and Recreation,* 5315 Drexel Ave., Chicago. $1.00 per year. 10 months.

Under the editorship of C. D. Giauque of George Williams College and an advisory board, this pocket-size magazine reprints in condensed form approximately twenty-five carefully selected magazine articles. The magazine is especially helpful in that it makes an effort to bring to the educator the essence of articles appearing in other authoritative periodicals that might otherwise be overlooked. Articles are selected on the basis of interest, and the topics are widely diversified.

*Journal of Health and Physical Education.* Ann Arbor, Michigan: American Physical Education Assn. Est. 1896 as the *American Physical Education Review;* changed to present name January, 1930. $2.00 per year with active membership. 10 months.

The *Journal* and its complement, the *Research Quarterly,* are the two official magazines in the field of health and physical education. Both periodicals are indispensable to teacher, administrator, student, or professional person who wishes to keep informed

upon every aspect of the field. The articles cover administrative problems, principles, methods, teaching materials and techniques, activity programs, theoretical and practical phases, history, philosophy, and progressive movements in this country and throughout the world. The articles are written by outstanding educational leaders. Book reviews, news notes, practical hints, and district news are regular monthly features. Convention summaries and roll-of-honor awards appear yearly.

*Research Quarterly.* Ann Arbor, Mich.: American Physical Education Assn. Published in March, May, October, and December. Vol. I, No. 1, March, 1930.

Articles based on research studies in the fields of athletics, physiology, administration, and character education comprise the greater part of the contents. Complete review of new physical education books a regular feature. The frequent supplements are sponsored by graduate departments of physical education in colleges and universities.

## A Social Program for Leisure

*(Continued from page 175)*

9. *There is a place for vicarious enjoyment* in our platform of leisure and this should be made clear. When direct enjoyment and participation is impossible, vicarious enjoyment is the best and a necessary substitute. Books and movies help to satisfy the human wish for new experience. Through the medium of the imagination, every man can be a hero or an athlete or an actor. This play of the imagination does serve a real purpose by releasing personalities into wider experiences than they would otherwise enjoy. In other words, we can windowshop the life we know exists but which we cannot have for our own.

The plea for vicarious recreation is conditional of course. Despite its usefulness in the appreciation of the artistry and skill of others, vicarious experience can never give the complete joy of actual participation in creative or adventursome living. It is incomplete if not accompanied by the satisfaction of direct experience in some form of recreational activity.

10. *There must be adequate leadership and organization of leisure in any far-reaching policy in regard to this social problem.* This must be national, state, and community-wide in extent. The Federal Government has already perceived its responsibility by setting aside the great national parks which are the recreational attractions for millions of tourists and campers. Many states have similarly established choice fishing, hunting, and forest preserves so that these areas will not become the property of exclusive groups. Relief labor has been utilized to develop parks, beautify waterfronts, clear vacant property for play spaces, build athletic fields, and construct gymnasiums. In 1934 in Michigan alone, eighty-seven gymnasiums were built with federal aid and these were to be community centers for varied physical, social, and educational activities. One also gains the definite impression that in various communities the recreational leaders are filling an important place in organizing the different forms of leisure-time activity and in acting as co-ordinators of the various agencies and programs.

When the developments in this field are all taken into account, there is ample cause for optimism among those interested in a social program for leisure. The constructive measures being taken by education and by various social agencies give a hopeful prospect—a promise for the future—of a more varied, a more satisfying, and a more productive program of leisure-time activities to fill the extra play hours of our people.

## Interscholastic Regulations

*(Continued from page 178)*

12. Students should be required to pass a physical examination by a licensed physician before they are permitted to participate in any athletic competition.

13. The use of unpaid adult and student officials in all games, with the exception of league games in football, basketball, and baseball should prevail. For these games adult officials should be appointed by the school authorities, and the officiating done, in so far as possible, by school people. The compensation for officials should be standardized by the local leagues.

14. The superintendents and city and county supervisors of physical education should have a definite responsibility, together with the high-school principals, in determining interscholastic relationships.

# Keeping Abreast of the Times

## Personal and Professional

THOMAS H. BRIGGS, professor of education at Teachers College, was guest of honor at a testimonial dinner in New Orleans in recognition of his contributions to secondary education. The occasion for the dinner was the completion of the second and final report of the committee on the orientation of secondary education. Doctor Briggs was chairman of the committee.

G. T. BUCKLEY, formerly dean of Blue Mountain College, is now registrar of the Mississippi State College for Women, succeeding R. L. WILLIAMS, who has been made an assistant registrar at the University of Michigan. Mr. Buckley, in turn, is succeeded by CHARLES D. JOHNSON, formerly vice-president and registrar of the Arkansas State A. and M. College at Monticello.

GLENN W. CALKINS has been appointed educational advisor of the Fort George Wright district of twenty-two CCC camps in eastern Washington and northern Idaho.

WALTER D. COCKING, formerly state commissioner of education in Tennessee, has been appointed to a position with the federal Adult Aducation Program. He is succeeded by W. A. BASS, executive secretary of the Tennessee Education Association.

WILLIAM L. CONNOR, chief of the bureau of research of the Cleveland schools, succeeds HIRAM O. DODD, as superintendent of schools at Allentown, Pa.

WALTER F. DEXTER, executive secretary to Gov. Frank F. Merriam, and formerly president of Whittier College, has been appointed state superintendent of public instruction in California. He succeeds VIERLING KERSEY, who has become superintendent of the Los Angeles public schools.

EUGENE B. ELLIOTT, superintendent of public instruction for Michigan, recently recommended to the governor and the Michigan Advisory Commission on Education that his own office, as now constituted, be abolished, and that an enlarged state board of education be established by constitutional amendment, with power to appoint an executive officer. Doctor Elliott made several other equally forward-looking recommendations concerning a tenure law and state aid.

EMERY T. FILBEY, dean of faculties, and WILLIAM B. BENTON of New York have been appointed vice-presidents of the University of Chicago. Mr. Filbey's appointment is effective at once; Mr. Benton's will take effect October 1, when he returns from a tour of the Orient. Mr. Filbey has been with the University since 1909, and administratively active for the past thirteen years. Until recently, chairman of the board of directors of Benton & Bowles, Inc., of New York, Mr. Benton was the only member of an academic family to enter business.

EARL A. GABLER of New York University's School of Education recently advocated final examinations based on life situations and drawn up by pupils. He thinks that pupils would then see more clearly the functioning aspect of the material learned, and would bridge the gap between the school's "wordism" and life realism, and the exercise of making the examination would itself be the best sort of test.

PAUL S. HAVENS will be installed as president of Wilson College, Chambersburg, Pa., on May 21 and 22. Doctor Havens, who was formerly at Scripps College, Claremont, Calif., succeeded the late ETHELBERT WARFIELD at the beginning of the current academic year.

CHARLES G. HETHERINGTON, superintendent of the Penn Yan, N. Y., schools since 1928, has been appointed acting superintendent at Auburn, N. Y., because of the illness of GEORGE F. BARFORD, who is on a year's leave of absence from the Auburn superintendency. CLAYTON E. ROSE has been named superintendent at Penn Yan.

EUGENE HILTON, principal of Allendale School, Oakland, Calif., has received the *Atlantic Monthly* award for the best manuscript submitted for a high-school textbook in the social studies. The new book, *Problems and Values of Today*, will be published in two volumes. Doctor Hilton received an outright cash prize of $2,000 and $2,000 advance on royalties.

CLYDE R. HOEY, governor of North Carolina, in his inaugural address in January, said that "North Carolina is too poor not to educate its children." *North Carolina Education* is properly grateful to Governor Hoey for stating the proposition as he did, rather than leaving out the "not." The state has nearly twice as many children per adult as does the average

★ *Copy for this section of The Phi Delta Kappan is prepared by W. A. Stumpf, a graduate student in the Department of Education, University of Chicago.*

state, and has a heavy public debt, part of which is falling due at this time.

WILLIAM H. KILPATRICK, professor of the philosophy of education at Teachers College, is scheduled to retire at the end of the current academic year, having reached the retirement age of 65 years.

J. WARREN KLEIN has resigned from the presidency of Albright College, Reading, Pa., because of ill health. He has served as president for the past six years. Pending the appointment of a successor, he will continue in the position, later to be a member of the executive personnel of the college.

R. STEWART MACDOUGALL has been appointed dean of instruction at the State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pa., where he was formerly director of teacher training.

JOHN A. MACKAY was installed February 2 as the third president of Princeton Theological Seminary, the inaugural ceremonies being held in connection with the one hundred and twenty-fifth anniversary of the Seminary. Doctor Mackay was succeeded as secretary of the Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church, a position he held since 1932, by ROBERT E. SPEER.

WILLIAM MCANDREW received the annual American Education Award, presented each year at the time of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence by the Associated Exhibitors of the National Education. The award is made on the basis of qualifications and outstanding educational achievement. Jane Addams received the award in 1935, and Lorado Taft, in 1936.

THOMAS G. MCCLEARY has retired from the superintendency of the Braddock, Pa., public schools, a position he held for the past 17 years. Teachers of the Braddock district honored him at a banquet, presenting him and Mrs. McCleary with gifts. Doctor McCleary was succeeded February 1 by WILLIAM C. EVANS, principal of the Braddock High School.

WALTER MILLER, professor emeritus of classical languages and archaeology at the University of Missouri, has been appointed editor-in-chief of the Standard American Encyclopedia. Doctor Miller is maintaining offices in Chicago while engaged in his editorial work.

ERLAND NELSON has resigned as president of Dana College, Blair, Neb., to accept an appointment as instructor in psychology in Newberry College, Newberry, S. C.

S. T. NEVELN, who has headed the Austin, Tex., schools for the past 16 years, was elected for another three-year term by the Austin school board. Editorial comment of Austin papers was markedly favorable to the board's action.

HOWARD W. OXLEY, National Director of CCC Camp Education, addressed the luncheon group of Phi Delta Kappa at New Orleans on February 23 on the subject of "Education in the CCC Camps." Dr. SHELTON PHELPS, president of Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina, addressed the group on the subject, "Educational Needs in the South."

BRUCE RAUP, professor of education at Teachers College, believes one of the greatest faults of modern education is that it neglects to give individuals a perspective which relaxes them from the nervous strain of current circumstances. Modern educational philosophy has failed, he says, because it has left the foregoing matter to religion, because it has been regarded as a matter merely of faith or ultra-metaphysics, and because of difficult relations between church, state, and school.

GUY E. SNAVELY has notified trustees of Birmingham-Southern College of his intention to resign in June to accept the executive secretaryship of the American Association of Colleges. Doctor Snavely was honored by his students recently at the close of his fifteenth year as president of Birmingham-Southern.

LESTER STEIG, formerly superintendent at Harvey, N. D., has been appointed an assistant professor of education at North Dakota Agricultural College.

HAROLD P. THOMAS, head of the department of education at Lehigh University, will serve as educational advisor to the school board of Bethlehem, Pa., in addition to his present duties.

LOUIS P. THORPE has been named a special lecturer in education at the University of Southern California.

A. L. THRELKELD has been appointed to the superintendency of the Montclair, N. J., schools, succeeding the late Frank G. Pickell. Doctor Threlkeld has for the past sixteen years been superintendent at Denver, Colo., and, for the past year, President of the Department of Superintendence of the N. E. A.

HENRY M. WRISTON, formerly president of Lawrence College, Appleton, Wis., was installed as president of Brown University on February 3. He succeeded CLARENCE A. BARBOUR, who died January 16, two weeks before his retirement was to become effective.

JAMES H. KIRKLAND, chancellor of Vanderbilt University since 1893, resigned on February 1. He joined the Vanderbilt faculty in 1886.

# Meetings and Conferences

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK for 1937 will be observed from November 7 to 13, the general theme to be: "Education and Our National Life." Daily themes will be:

Sunday—Can We Educate for Peace?
Monday—Buying Educational Service.
Tuesday—The Horace Mann Centennial.
Wednesday—Our American Youth Problem.
Thursday—Schools and the Constitution.
Friday—School Open House Day.
Saturday—Lifelong Learning.

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION held a three-day conference, opening February 25, in St. Louis, on the problem of educating American youth to carry on a democratic government. Speakers focussed attention on the sources of the American democratic concept. The program was supplemented by lectures and demonstrations of dancing, painting, sculpture, and music. An international exhibit of children's art, to illustrate relations between art expressions and culture of various national groups, was also held.

Among those appearing on the programs were: Bishop William Scarlett, St. Louis; William Kilpatrick, Teachers College; Fritz Redl, Vienna, Austria; Willard Beatty, director of Indian education; Carson Ryan, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching; Carleton Washburne, superintendent, Winnetka, Ill.; George Frasier, president, Colorado State College of Eduation; and Henry P. Fairchild, New York University.

The INTERNATIONAL COUNCIL FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN held its fifteenth annual convention in Cinnati, February 18-20. The first day was devoted to visiting special schools, classes, and community social agencies. The Friday-morning session was built about the theme, "Teacher Training." Reading disabilities were considered Friday afternoon. "Research in Education," was studied during the Saturday-morning session.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF DEANS and ADVISORS OF MEN will meet April 1-3 at the University of Texas, Austin, Texas. Problems in the field will be discussed. Aubrey Williams of the National Youth Administration, and Christian Gauss of Princeton University will be among the speakers. The Texas organization of deans of men will meet at the same time.

The ASSOCIATION OF CHILDHOOD EDUCATION will hold its forty-fourth annual convention in San Antonio, March 30 to April 3, to consider the matter of "Today's Trends in Childhood Education." Delegates will have an opportunity to visit Texas schools, to participate in forum and class discussions, and to hear leaders in the field.

The INLAND EMPIRE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION'S annual meeting will be held in Spokane, April 7-9. Special programs have been prepared by the CCC, the PTA, and the Junior Red Cross.

The Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools will meet on April 5-6, closing its sessions just before the beginning of the Inland Empire convention.

The EASTERN COMMERCIAL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION will discuss "Foundations of Vocational Testing in Business Education" at its annual spring convention in Boston, March 24-27. Leaders in the field of commercial education will contribute their ideas as to what types and degrees of skill, what informational background, and what social understandings, characteristics and practices business men must now demand of those seeking entry to gainful occupations in the field.

NATIONAL INSTITUTIONAL TEACHER PLACEMENT ASSOCIATION. Plans to form a New England unit of the National Institutional Teacher Placement Association were made by representatives of eleven institutions of higher learning, February 4, at Boston University. The group discussed problems common to those engaged in teacher-placement work.

BOSTON UNIVERSITY ALUMNI TEACHERS ASSOCIATION recently sponsored a panel discussion on "How Shall We Attain Professional Unity Among Teachers?" at the university's Soden Building. John J. Mahoney, professor of education at Boston University, headed the panel. Teachers associations, other professional organizations, and labor organizations were considered during the panel discussion.

MICHIGAN STATE NORMAL COLLEGE. Activities in curriculum revision in the teachers colleges of Michigan, which have been going on in cooperation with the state department of public instruction and otherwise, were brought before teachers in the vicinity of State Normal, February 4, when a conference was sponsored by the University of Michigan, Wayne University, and State Normal. Similar conferences will be held for teachers in the vicinities of East Lansing, Kalamazoo, and Mount Pleasant.

PENNSYLVANIA MEETINGS include that of the Association of School Board Secretaries, held in Harrisburg, February 2. Proposed legislation, problems in public school business administration, and "Important Duties of School Board Secretaries" occupied the attention of the secretaries in attendance.

The State School Directors Association met Febru-

ary 3-4 at Harrisburg, to hear persons prominent in education in Pennsylvania. Questions on administration and finance were discussed by Clarence E. Ackley of the Department of Public Instruction.

TWELFTH ANNUAL MID-YEAR EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE was held at the Colorado State College of Education, Greeley, Colo., January 28-30.

Among the general-session addresses were "Public Education and Sane Americanism," and "Applying a Democratic Philosophy of Education," by Virgil M. Rogers, superintendent of schools, Boulder, Colo. "Ten Years on the Board" was the subject of a luncheon address by R. H. Brannaman, superintendent of schools, Gilcrest, Colo.

The ROCKY MOUNTAIN SPEECH CONFERENCE met for the sixth annual session of the group, February 18-20, at the University of Denver to consider the theme: "Preservation of Democracy." An extensive and elaborate program, including forums and discussions of classroom projects, was presented. The purpose of the conferences is "to serve as a laboratory for the development and presentation of new speech methods in education."

The TRANS-PECOS TEACHERS ASSOCIATION met in Alpine, Texas, March 5-6, with the following speakers appearing on the program: Vierling Kersey, Los Angeles; D. M. Wiggins, president of the College of Mines and Metallurgy of the University of Texas; W. L. Wrinkle, Colorado State Teachers College; B. B. Cobb, Texas State Teachers Association, and B. F. Pittenger, school of education, University of Texas.

## Physical and Health Education

A TEXAS CONFERENCE ON CHILD HEALTH AND PROTECTION, held at the University of Texas, February 4-6, heard Dr. Felix J. Underwood, state health officer of Mississippi, in an address, "New Trends in Public Health"; and Miss Katherine Lenrott, chief of the Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C., on "New Plans for Child Welfare Progress." Dr. Philip Jeans, professor of pediatrics at the University of Iowa, discussed "Recent Advances in Growth and Development," and Dr. Earl Carlson, director of corrective motor education, New York Neurological Institute, on "Value of Motor Education for All Children." Dr. James R. McCord of Emory University spoke on "Plans for Better Maternal Care."

ASSOCIATION MEETINGS. Recent district meetings of the American Physical Education Association include one in Boston, February 15, where Shailer U. Lawton of New York University spoke on the "Relation of Physiology to Physical and Health Education." and Abraham Myerson discussed the "Relation of Psychiatry to Physical and Health Education."

A central district meeting will be held in Denver, March 31 to April 3, with Willard N. Greim as convention manager. Sectional meetings will be devoted to women's athletics, recreation, camping, public school health education programs, intercollegiate and intramural athletics, research, and teacher-training. A demonstration of physical-education work in the public schools and colleges of Colorado will be given in the Municipal Auditorium, in charge of Miss Maisie Hoyt.

The southern section will meet March 17-20 at Houston, Texas. About 600 physical-education teachers are expected to attend. G. S. Hermance is convention chairman. The speakers' roster will include a number of internationally-known authorities in the field.

An annual DOCTORS' HELPERS INSTITUTE is announced for July 12-16, to be held at Hampton Institute. Mrs. Emily W. Bennett, field educational nurse of the Virginia Department of Health, will conduct the meeting and also direct an Institute on Home Hygiene and Care of the Sick, from July 12 to July 24. Textbooks will be furnished by the American Red Cross.

According to the *Medical Times,* only a courageous and adequate campaign of education concerning the truth about the hard liquor now marketed seems to stand between the country and prohibition. Temperance is held to be not enough, as unfit liquor in any quantity is harmful. The magazine suggests, chidingly, that the government might commandeer "the wretched stuff" and offer it free and *ad libitum* to drunkards, as such a policy might either "decimate the breed quickly or shame it into sobriety."

Says Jay B. Nash in the *Nebraska Educational Journal,* as reprinted in the *Physical Education Digest:*

"A great modern battle is upon us—the goal is destruction of civilization. . . . If the school gives up its attempt to put a 'driving want' into the leisure time of children and abandons them to the forces of play in our city streets, America will simply become another civilization that *was.*"

Altoona, Pa., school children are the subjects of an extensive experiment in nutrition sponsored by the Altoona school officials, Pennsylvania State College, and the Pennsylvania State Department of Health. After the physical status of the children has been studied, an attempt will be made to learn whether feeding in the schools of concentrates of foods high in protein and vitamin will improve the children physi-

cally. The last step will be an educational campaign among Pennsylvania grade-school children and their parents.

A ten-year review of public leisure activities, published in the Year Book of the National Recreation Association, indicates that the American appetite for recreation is sharpening.

Bathing beaches, public golf courses, ice skating arenas, and swimming pools doubled in number from 1925 to 1935. Schools and other buildings used partly for recreation centers tripled. New recreation areas totaling 1,790 were opened in 1935.

Swimming was the most popular sport, with 836,000 devotees; ice skating was second, with 732,000 participants. The vogue for ski and snow trains has helped push forward tobogganning and skiing. Baseball had 294,000 players, and softball, 396,000. Golf reported a seasonal participation of six and a half million.

Ernst Hermann, dean of Boston University's Sargent College of Physical Education, speaking before the American Eugenics Society, declared that if a cut of even fifty per cent in the cost of caring for the unfit of the nation could be made, far greater progress with the social problems involving public health and the future of the race might be made. Said Dean Hermann, further:

"I should like to emphasize particularly the need for raising the educational level of the people in respect to personal health, and I advocate more thorough and more frequent health examinations in the elementary and secondary schools. We need better follow-up work, and an extension of the health examination to include mental and emotional states."

During adolescence, physical and anatomical health should be stressed, believes Mr. Hermann. In elementary years, children should have a great variety of physical activities, possibly consisting of simple tasks. The circle should be gradually narrowed, and physical education in the junior and senior high school should concern itself with developing excellence and skill in a number of avocations.

Student activities in the Oregon State System of Higher Education have been reorganized according to a new program that differs from the former plan in three essentials:

1. The division of activities into two groups—intercollegiate athletic activities, and educational activities—with separate control of each.

2. The government of each group resting in a general control board, with final responsibility placed with the president of the institution, subject to review of the Chancellor.

3. The financing of both types of activities placed upon a voluntary basis, and consisting of voluntary fees plus the income realized from the respective activities.

At the University of Oregon and at Oregon State College, the Intercollegiate Athletic Activities Board is composed of ten members, the personnel of which includes five members of the faculty, three alumni or citizens, and two members of the student body.

A new Physical Education Building is now nearing completion at the University of Oregon, and a Student Health Service Building, in which the Oregon Mothers organization has taken an active interest, has been completed.

At Oregon State College, a new Health Service building has been completed, replacing one of the oldest buildings on the campus. The building was financed by a government grant, 70 per cent of which will be repaid from health-service fees, which will also pay for the new equipment.

A limited number of scholarships and teaching fellowships for 1937-38, available to graduates of normal schools and colleges and for teachers now in service in fields of the handicapped, are announced by Teachers College of Columbia University. Scholarships may include tuition, maintenance, and cash stipends. Appointments will be made for one year on a probational basis, but may be canceled at the end of any session in event of inferior work.

The technical, practical, and professional work will be given jointly by Teachers College and co-operating institutions and agencies for the physically, mentally, or socially handicapped.

Application forms may be obtained by writing to Merle E. Frampton, Office of the Secretary, Teachers College, and must be filed not later than May 1.

Secondary-school children know little, except vague and inaccurate generalities, about venereal diseases, according to J. C. Blair of Woodlawn High School, Birmingham, writing for the *Alabama School Journal*. A survey showed that but ten per cent had ever received information from parents, physician, or other reliable source. Since syphilis is a leading cause of death, either directly or contributory, the importance of teaching facts concerning venereal diseases is evident.

"Our plan of teaching the pupils," writes Mr. Blair, "is to separate the boys and girls. The boys have at least two of the men teachers with them. We have found it much better to have small groups and to conduct the meeting as an open forum or panel meeting." He also adds that this same plan is used in teaching reproduction and sex hygiene.

# Foreign Notes

EDUCATION IN CHINA. The modern education system of China, adopted in 1911, was completely reorganized in 1922. Social responsibility has been given primary emphasis, with student government and social service encouraged. This probably accounts for the prominent part of students in the national life of the country.

New importance is being placed on scientific education and vocational training, both trends being direct reactions against the traditional emphasis given to spiritual culture. It is said to be plainly evident that China is endeavoring to adopt many principles of Western civilization, although the 1932 report of the League of Nation's mission of educational experts to China urged that the school system derive its characteristic features from native soil.

In 1922, under the leadership of Y. C. James Yen, founder of China's mass education movement, a nationwide campaign was launched to eliminate illiteracy, with the result that now about forty per cent of the population is literate. The present Nationalist government hopes to make literate at least 20,000,000 between the ages of 16 and 20 years.

China has compulsory school attendance for four years, with standard curricula for elementary and secondary schools published.

In 1912, less than 3,000,000 pupils were in elementary schools, and but 52,000 in high schools. Now there are some 12,000,000 in the elementary schools and about 500,000 in high schools.

Compulsory military training for all male students in secondary schools and colleges was decreed by the Nanking government in April, 1935. On August 10, 1936, Nanking University registered 128 students for a special session for military drill.

Higher education is becoming increasingly coeducational. Last year two-fifths of the entering class at Yenching University were women. A special law school for women has been established in Shanghai. One of the important banks of Shanghai, the Women's Commercial and Savings Bank, is headed by a woman and is managed entirely by women.

Other aspects of the situation are given in the February *Sierra Educational News* by Frances N. Ahl, whose article furnished the material included in the foregoing summary.

ITALIAN EDUCATION. Manfredo Pedicini, an exchange student at Boston University, makes the following comments on Italian education:

Italian university faculties do not concern themselves with students or their affairs. The Italian student is usually between 19 to 20 years old when he graduates from high school, where he receives his first degree. First-year students at Boston are doing the type of work done in Italian high schools.

Italy gives more incentive to arouse students' interest in the theater and high forms of entertainment, according to Mr. Pedicini.

Excessive drinking is considered bad taste by Italians, but flirtations that would be considered immoral in America are accepted as quite natural in Italy. Women are admitted freely as visitors to men's dormitories.

More active participation in sports is the rule in Italy because students there have more time. All necessary studying can be done in April in preparation for the Italian examinations.

Italian students commonly whistle and boo at professors who require attendance or are in other ways disapproved by the students, but other faculty members are more respected than in America.

BERLIN, GERMANY. Dr. Bernhard Rust, minister of education, in a speech opening a recent exhibition illustrating "Teacher Training in the Third Reich," declared:

"Only he who himself was trained and formed in the National Socialist character is worthy to work in the schools of the National Socialist state." He said, further, referring to reconstruction of German education:

"The first prerequisite was rather the creating of a new teacher, of a teacher who himself is shaped by the molding power of the [Nazi] movement and who, therefore, will reform the students more profoundly and more permanently. I have created special schools for training teachers so that I may apply to the field of education the principles represented by the National Socialist movement."

CUBA. Col. Fulgencia Batista, head of the Cuban army, has recently demanded a tax on the export of sugar in order to raise funds for establishing some 2,300 new schools in rural regions. The new schools, according to his proposal, will be taught by army sergeants, instead of by trained academic teachers.

TAMPICO, MEXICO. Schools in Tampico re-opened February 17 after a four-month strike of teachers, caused by nonpayment of salaries. Because of the break in the academic year, pupils will have no summer holiday.

BOMBAY, INDIA. A charter of students' rights and obligations toward the state and community, toward educational institutions, and toward parents was adopted. Sectarian institutions were opposed, as was the organization of any school for financial profit,

although a living wage for teachers was asked. Youth is not "the private property or exclusive concern of parents." Free and compulsory education was demanded, with textbooks that do not propagate anti-national and anti-democratic ideas. Better libraries were sought, and the organization of free employment bureaus was asked.

AUSTRALIA. After six years of operation in Sidney, the Royal Military College reopened in Duntroon, near Canberra, on February 15. Twenty-five new cadets were added to the present forty-nine on March 1, making the largest roll in many years. The college was founded in Duntroon in 1911, and was moved to Sydney as an economy measure. Removal from the distractions of the city was given as the reason for the latest change in location.

VANCOUVER, B. C. By unanimous vote, the Vancouver Board of Trustees recently adopted the principle of giving trade preference to individuals and firms who subscribe to a policy of maintaining a standard wage level and shortened hours of labor.

SASKATCHEWAN, CANADA. Teachers of Saskatchewan have acknowledged "with obvious gratitude" the gift of $1,827.30 transmitted by the Secondary School Teachers of Ontario to relieve distress among members of the Saskatchewan Federation.

LONDON, ENGLAND. According to press notes, the London Education Committee is contemplating a censorship of textbooks used in London schools. *The London Teacher* believes, however, that the safe plan is to "trust the teachers. They are impelled by the strongest motives . . . to require accuracy, reliability, and impartiality in school textbooks, and what is equally important, to be ruled by these qualities in the daily lessons and in their intercourse with their pupils."

## Colleges and Universities

FLOOD EFFECTS. With public schools seriously damaged, swept away, closed, or used as refugee centers, formal education in the flooded areas virtually came to a halt. The effect of the flood on the University of Louisville was described by James Morgan Read in a feature article in the *New York Times*.

The university was closed for two weeks, but with the resumption of work, many students are missing. A third of the 2,500 students live in the west end of Louisville, where the deepest water was encountered. To permit these young people to resume their studies, the university is seeking a greatly increased allocation of NYA funds.

The fate of the university's elaborate centennial celebration of this Spring is in doubt.

Physically, the university suffered little damage, except the medical school in the center of Louisville. Library books were transferred from lower stacks to upper levels, and the librarian is now confronted with the task of "unscrambling" the results.

Parts of the university were used as refugee centers. Medical students, called "doctors" by their patients, gave typhoid inoculations, went out on calls, even delivered babies. Doctor Warwick of the history department was assigned the task of keeping up the morale of some 700 refugees at the Kentucky Military Institute. He organized a vaudeville show, held church services once daily, and held Sunday-school classes, as well as giving several lectures. Other faculty members were equally busy.

Incidentally, the liberal arts college waived mid-year examinations.

PAY ACCORDING TO SERVICE TO SOCIETY. According to the *St. Petersburg* (Fla.) *Independent*, the following interesting comparisons exist in Florida:

"The dean of the University of Florida gets $341.67 a month; the official who checks beer and whiskey . . . gets $400.

"Florida's governor is paid $625 a month; the state's racing superintendent is paid $780.

"A professor of science, who is a Ph.D., has a monthly salary of $183.33; a stamp clerk at the beer and whisky department, who is not a Ph.D., receives $300.

"The race track veterinarian gets $650 a month during the racing season; the president of the University of Florida gets $600, having made the mistake of not becoming a horse doctor."

Write your own ticket.

GUARDING THE COLLEGE DEGREE. Frank H. Bowles, acting director of admissions, in his annual report to the president of Columbia University, warns that American colleges must restore their system of "selective admission" to insure the worth of the degree, according to the *New York Times*.

Mr. Bowles attributed the collapse of the selective admission system to "shaky finances" in many schools during the depression, and to the crushing burden of debts inherited by many schools from the previous period of prosperity.

Depression expedients for bolstering enrollment have become "more or less permanent parts of the educational picture," writes Mr. Bowles, and now it is difficult to relinquish depression recruiting policies. The result, he says, will be that the "value of the degrees now being awarded by many institutions generally con-

sidered to be doing sound academic work will be seriously affected."

BOOKS TO PROFESSORS IN GERMANY. A member of the American Association of University Professors recites in the January *Bulletin* of that organization, that German university libraries "are becoming poorer and poorer, comparatively, with respect to books from outside of Germany." The member suggests that anyone who publishes his findings in this country would do well to send free copies to a few of his colleagues in the same discipline in German universities, with the trust that new German books sufficient to make "more than a fair exchange" will be returned. The situation is partly owing to a shortage of funds, but more particularly to the difficulty in transferring money outside of Germany.

The Carl Schurz Memorial Foundation, Philadelphia, has recently received 20,000 marks to purchase American books and periodicals for German university libraries.

Dr. Duggan, director of the Institute of International Education, was, at the time the bulletin was written, writing to Germany to make arrangements for the distribution of such books and periodicals as may be collected at his office, 2 West 45th Street, New York City. Phi Delta Kappans interested should write to Doctor Duggan.

CURRENT REGISTRATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION. According to statistics assembled annually by Raymond Walters, president of the University of Cincinnati, there are 746,224 full-time students in 593 institutions in the present academic year, and a grand total, including part-time and summer-school classifications, of 1,140,786. The figures represent an increase of 6.6 per cent over those of 1935.

The American Association of Junior Colleges in January, 1936, reported 122,311 students in 518 junior colleges.

CALIFORNIA STATE COLLEGES have been authorized by the State Board of Education to award the Bachelor of Education degree, first, upon the basis of academic and professional training, and second, upon the basis of successful teaching experience and participation in school and community activities for five or more years.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO will use three-thousand-year-old inscriptions, unearthed in China, in a major effort to reduce drastically the time and drudgery faced by Americans seeking to learn Chinese. The five-year research project will be carried on by Herrlee G. Creel, instructor in Chinese, and two assistants.

The university has received $275,000 from the Rosenwald Family Association on condition that it raise not less than twice that amount from other sources. No restrictions were placed on the use of the funds.

EMPORIA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE'S "Every-Pupil Scholarship Tests" will be given April 14 in some 13,000 elementary and high schools in the United States. The tests cover 46 different subjects, 32 being for high-school level, 13 for elementary subjects, and one a music test for both elementary and high schools. The purpose of the tests is to promote scholarship.

HAMPTON INSTITUTE'S summer school has been recommended by Arthur D. Wright, president of the John F. Slater Fund and the Anna T. Jeanes Foundation, as the chief Jeanes Teacher Study Center. About 45 Jeanes teachers will receive special work at Hampton during the coming sessions.

ILLINOIS STATE NORMAL UNIVERSITY'S twelfth annual geography tour will visit the East during the coming summer, leaving Normal, Ill., June 17, and returning July 31. The tour will cover 5,500 miles. Leslie A. Homes will be in charge.

"Normal" celebrated its eightieth anniversary on February 23 with a banquet in Fell Hall.

UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS has established five freshman colleges in addition to the four started during November, the new ones being located at Fort Leavenworth, Osawatomie, Oxford, Kansas Vocational School at Topeka, and Garnett, the last of which is the largest yet established by the university.

"Religious Emphasis Week" was revived at Kansas after a lapse of several years, to be observed from March 14 to 19. Y. T. Wu, Chinese national secretary of the Student Christian movement, will be the principal speaker.

The UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI'S new laboratory school building of the school of education was dedicated in Columbia, February 15-16, forming one of the important events in the program of the Missouri Department of Superintendence meeting. Speakers included former deans of the school of education: A. Ross Hill, J. L. Merian, W. W. Charters, J. H. Coursalt, M. G. Neale, and T. W. H. Irion, the present dean. The building will eventually house the university's elementary school of six grades, the junior high school, and the senior high school.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY will start a "new and unique" four-year curriculum in its College of Arts and Pure Science next Fall when students will be offered a balanced academic training in liberal arts and in the fundamental business subjects, with specialization provided for in accounting, banking and finance, and marketing management. The student will not be

restricted to the completion of a major sequence in courses in a single liberal arts department and a minor sequence in a related branch.

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY'S school of education, in cooperation with the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, is undertaking the modernization of the curriculum of the rural school, the area of the experimental work to be seven counties in southwestern Michigan.

A staff of five faculty members has been delegated to make weekly visits in the area to conduct extension courses for teachers, visit classrooms, hold individual and group conferences, and to organize parent-teacher and other civic groups. Those taking part are White Brogan, Howard Lane, S. A. Hamrin, E. T. McSwain, and Walter Alexander.

UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH. The 150th anniversary of the founding of the university will be celebrated with a series of exercises which began with a "Charter Day" banquet February 25, and which will culminate with a special commencement program in June, when Pittsburgh's new buildings will be dedicated. The university has grown until it now registers about 14,000 students in all of its various schools and branches.

PRINCETON UNIVERSITY has instituted a change in policy whereby a limited number of students of achievement and promise in schools of the South, West, and rural East will be admitted hereafter without examination. Candidates from eastern centers, and from schools which offer definite preparation for college entrance examinations, to take examinations, as in the past.

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY. Guidance for foreign students will in the future be given by faculty members who have traveled in, or had experience in foreign countries, the purpose being to assure advice by individuals familiar with the visiting students' background. In addition, the committee working on the guidance problem has prepared a supplementary bulletin in Spanish for prospective students making inquiries from Spanish-speaking countries.

Ohio State's basic professional program in nursing education has been approved by the Association of Collegiate Schools of Nursing.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, facing a doubling enrollment, is beginning an extensive building program. Among the buildings planned are a memorial theater and an open-air amphitheater planned to seat 15,000, the new education building donated by Dr. and Mrs. Ellwood Cubberley, the Hoover War Library, a law building, and a press building, the last three still in the visionary stage.

TEACHERS COLLEGE. The old New England town meeting will be revived this Spring when students, teachers, and workers will gather in the Horace Mann Auditorium of the college forthnightly to discuss political, social, and economic issues. Each meeting will revolve about some current issue, with the first part devoted to a round-table discussion, and the second half to discussion from the floor. W. C. Hallenbeck and Lyman Bryson, professors of adult education, will act as advisers to the student committee.

TEMPLE UNIVERSITY has established a scholarship loan fund, donated by alumni and faculty, and planned not only to aid underprivileged prospective students but also to help those already enrolled to tide over periods of financial stress. Loans will be administered by an executive committee on a strictly business basis.

UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS. If the report of a special committee of the general faculty of the university be adopted, selection of the president and the deans will not be left wholly to the Board of Regents, but will be made partly on the recommendation of advisory committees.

The special committee making the foregoing report also proposed important administrative changes, including the creation of the position of a vice-president to relieve the president of some of his present heavy responsibilities, and the institution of a single head for each department in place of the present budget council composed of all full professors in the department.

The committee also proposes that the sub-standard student be held to stricter account, that the honor student shall be given new opportunity and greater independence, and that the curriculum shall establish a clear distinction between the preparatory work of the first two years and the advanced work of the last two years.

Recommendations are made for the enlargement of the staff of the university's health service, with one physician to be specially trained in psychiatry; and the giving of further study by agencies and committees concerned with student affairs to student recreation and social relations between faculty and students.

The financial section of the report cites the great increase in the number of students and the decreasing appropriations made to the university during this period.

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN. More than 49 per cent of the income of the university was earned by the university itself or granted by the Federal government. Student fees, interest, dormitories and commons, athletic ticket sales, hospitals, and sales of products from the university farms accounted for $2,894,811.51. The Federal government granted $603,907.04.

## Public Schools

Reading for ninth- and tenth-grade pupils is a compulsory subject in the Central Valley, Wash., high school.

Kalispell, Mont., serves hot luncheons at a cost of but two cents a meal to 90 pupils, daily. The system has been in operation for several years. Luncheons may be purchased either with money or produce.

Milwaukee's high-school teachers' association has formed a speakers' bureau, and organizations desiring speakers have been requested to make direct contact with the individuals whose names are on the speakers' list.

Contracts to teach in the Montgomery, Ala., schools are being offered this year only to teachers who vote. Says C. M. Dannelly, superintendent, according to the *Social Frontier:*

"An educator who does not vote is poorly equipped to prepare pupils for effective participation in a democracy."

Per-pupil costs in Canal Zone schools in 1935-36 were:

| | |
|---|---|
| Junior College | $258.14 |
| Senior High School | 145.89 |
| Junior High School | 110.06 |
| Elementary Schools | 118.57 |
| Colored Schools | 32.07 |

Teachers salaries, effective in September, 1938, will be, for white elementary and junior high school teachers, from $1,750 to $2,375; for senior high-school teachers, $2,250 to $3,125 (super-maximum); junior-college instructors, $2,871 to $3,249.

Detroit's board of education has passed a total maintenance budget of $28,722,202 for 1937-38, providing for 305 additional teachers, maintaining the salary structure, growth at Wayne University, a $150,000 appropriation to the Teachers Retirement Fund, and restoring the 10-day sick leave.

Denver's school budget for the year 1936-37 is $114,052 below the 1935-36 figure, although the mill tax will be 15.1 as compared to 14.6 a year ago. Payroll provisions account for 93 per cent of the budget. Since 1930-31, membership in the regular full-time day schools has increased 5,692, which, on the basis of the pupil-teacher ratio of that year would have meant the addition of 187 teachers. But 34 have been added to the total number of teachers.

Akron, Ohio, schools may be closed for two weeks, following the failure of voters to approve a 5.4 mill tax levy for operating expenses, "thereby throwing the burden of the reduced income upon the teachers (and children)" comments the *Social Frontier.* The Akron Teachers Association approved the closing plan, but the local of the American Federation of Teachers countered with a proposal to re-submit the levy at a special election at which the issues involved can be clearly explained to the people.

The board of education at Seattle has submitted to the election on March 9 a proposal for a special levy of three mills for building purposes. If approved the levy would produce about $750,000, making possible the first step in resuming the building program held in abeyance since 1930. A survey showed that more than 14,000 children were attending school in portables and wooden buildings.

New York City's Board of Superintendents will recommend, within the next three months, that the Board of Education plan a $30,000,000 junior high-school building program, to continue over a period of six years, starting in 1938. The extension of the junior-high program will, it is expected, cut the number of high-school failures, and lessen school construction and administration costs. If the program is adopted, New York City by 1953 will be on a complete 6-3-3 basis.

A bulletin on the care of the teeth, with illustrations showing tooth development, what foods do for teeth, why teeth must be kept clean, etc.; and a wall chart of eight posters on the teeth are available from the American Dental Association, 212 East Superior Street, Chicago, according to the bulletin of the state superintendent of schools of Iowa.

"Personal Management," an orientation course for entering freshmen, has been added to the program of studies of the Oakdale (Calif.) Union High School. The course is devoted to practical problems of the entering pupil, and stresses pupil-participation throughout. Those interested in secondary education may obtain a copy of the course by sending a stamped, self-addressed envelope to Joseph Burton Vasche, Oakdale, Calif.

The thirteenth annual session of the Yosemite School of Field Natural History will be held in Yosemite National Park, June 21 to August 7, under auspices of the government, and is intended to train National Park Service personnel. Graduates are often chosen for ranger, ranger-naturalist, custodian, and park naturalist positions in National parks and Monuments. Fourteen men and six women will be selected for the coming summer. No tuition fee is charged. Application blanks may be obtained from C. A. Harwell, Yosemite National Park.

A Mojave desert district is described by Vincent B. Claypool, principal of the Barstow (Calif.) Union High School, as follows:

"We work in the wide open spaces, as the district covers an area greater than the state of Massachusetts, and for this area we have one pupil for every 30 square miles. One of our busses makes a run of 52 miles each way every day. Pupils who live at the end of this bus line must travel more than 75,000 miles to secure their education."

A West Orange, N. J., juvenile court judge held two parents to be "disorderly persons" for withdrawing their boys from school April 5 and attempting to train them at home. The judge found a "hit-or-miss kind of instruction" had been given, and that the home work was not equivalent to that of the West Orange schools. He also said that the parents could not provide for group teaching and lacked the ability "to develop attitudes and create a social setting."

Utah school people will have an active part in the state's politics during the coming legislative sessions. Among those occupying legislative posts are J. W. Thornton, principal of Farrer Junior High School, Provo, who was appointed to a state senatorial vacancy; Glenn E. Snow, principal of Parowan High School, newly elected state senator from southern Utah; and Milton B. Taylor, Weber; Henry Peterson, Logan; Thelma Garff, Salt Lake City; and A. B. Poulsen, Jordan, elected to the House of Representatives of the state.

A new four-year elementary course, designed to aid children of "too immature mentality to cope successfully with the symbols of writing and numbers," is announced for the Boston public schools, to begin in the fall of 1937. The course will complement the regular classes in the first three years.

Under the new program, the same amount of work will be accomplished without the burden of the pupil's staying behind a year. The new plan would attempt to prevent the "shame" of staying behind a year from causing further retardation.

Racketeering in books has been brought before teachers and administrator by Edgar G. Doudna in the *Wisconsin Journal of Education,* and N. Howard Jensen in *The Utah Educational Review,* and their articles are worth the attention of administrators. Some of the suggestions given are:

"Don't 'take stock' in any variation of the 'you-have-been-selected' scheme.

"Don't 'fall' for this line—'only a limited number of sets at a low introductory price are allotted' to your city or state.

"Don't expect to receive something for nothing.

"Don't be afraid to ask to see complete volumes.

"Don't be afraid to return material that has been sold to you by misrepresentation.

"Don't be afraid to invest money in yourself. There is no better investment than books—carefully selected."

Books "not recommended under any title or at any price" are listed, as well as are certain recommended encyclopedias.

Law and order came out first in a recent brush with a New Jersey school board, according to the *New Jersey Educational Review.*

The Mansfield board of education, not complying with the New Jersey law that prohibits the cutting of salaries below $1,000, reduced the wages of two teachers in the $900 per annum class. In addition, it cut another teacher's pay from $1,100 to less than $1,000, also an illegal procedure.

The Commissioner of Education, after a hearing in which the teachers were represented by counsel provided by the State Teachers Association, ruled that the cuts made in the $900 salaries were illegal, and that these teachers must be paid the salaries to which they were entitled, and be given back salary illegally deducted.

In the other case, the Commissioner ruled that, since the board had not reduced the $1,100 to $1,000, as it legally might have, but chose rather to make an illegal reduction to below $1,000, the teacher would receive the $1,100 salary until the board should make a legal reduction.

The Minneapolis board of education moved for action early in February on a five-point legislative program, to cover the following points:

1. Action by the state legislature to retain the present emergency basis of distribution of income tax revenue;

2. Adoption by the legislature of a proposed amendment to the income tax law to empower the Minneapolis board to continue after 1937 to spend such revenue for current expenses, instead of debt, with the board's total annual expenditure of money from all sources to be limited to $100 per enrolled pupil;

3. Enactment of a bill which would authorize the board for the next two years to substitute for the present 22-mill maximum local school tax levy a maximum levy to yield not more than $82 per pupil "belonging," exclusive of other revenues;

4. Action by the legislature to allocate to the Minneapolis board the same proportion of the state monies and credits tax as now received;

5. Ask Congress to pass the proposed Ryan-Lundeen bill for federal aid, with no school to receive more than $25 per pupil per annum.

Sixteen Indiana counties were affected by the recent Ohio river floods. Some of the provisions relating to schools in this area are given in the state superintendent's page in the *Indiana Teacher.*

Idle teachers are requested to inform the state department of their present locations and their availability for immediate assignment. Superintendents needing teachers are also requested to communicate with the state department.

"Transplanted" teachers are not to be paid substitute wages—they are under contract and will be paid by the home corporation.

All concerned are warned that refugee children must have daily medical supervision, and their bodies and clothes should be clean.

Schools will not lose their commissions on account of flood conditions, and will share in distribution of funds on the basis of their first-semester count of pupils.

A survey of the sixteen counties in which the cooperation of county superintendents has been asked is under way.

Warning is given that all schoolbooks, supplementary readers, reference sets, maps, and paper supplies that were under flood waters are unfit for further use.

North Carolina, as the result of "two unfortunate circumstances," is in the throes of a crisis concerning bus transportation. The appropriation for the replacement and repair of trucks was not quite as much as needed when made two years ago. This, plus weather that made dirt roads a "loblolly of mud" broke down a service that under ordinary circumstances might have pulled through this year. The crisis was precipitated after a grand jury criticism had brought about the closing of schools in Forsyth county.

The law specifies that the adding of new original equipment is the duty of a county, but that replacement of worn-out equipment is a state function. Comments *North Carolina Education:*

"The solution of this problem is not the purchase of steel-bodied buses. Neither is it the employment of adult drivers. School authorities in most counties have found that the student driver is a better driver and a more responsible one than the adult who can be employed for twice the wages. . . . The cost of hauling children to school last year was a little over three cents per child. . . ."

Utah teachers' proposed retirement law will include all legally qualified teachers teaching in State schools, including superintendents, librarians, employees of the State Board of Education, and teachers not holding a teacher's certificate but teaching in a state institution. Membership is optional for those employed on June 1, 1937; after that date, it will be compulsory.

Teachers who are members of a local retirement system may elect to join the state system, contributing the difference between the local assessment and the state rate. Rates of contribution range from 5.20 per cent for males at age 20, and 5.71 per cent for females, to 7.24 per cent for males at age 59 and 8.24 per cent for females.

The retirement allowance will be made up of three component parts: (1) an annuity purchased by the member's accumulated contributions; (2) a pension based on current service purchased by the contributions of the state equal to the amount of the annuity purchased by the member's contributions; and, (3) an additional pension based on prior service purchased by the state which is equal to one-seventieth of the member's final salary multiplied by the number of years of prior service.

The retirement allowance of a person who began teaching at age 25, joining the system at age 40, and retiring at age 60, amounts to $500.01 per annum, based on salary of $1,000 a year over the past ten years prior to retirement.

Contributions are to be administered on the savings-bank basis; i. e., they will be returned with interest upon resignation or discharge, or, upon death before retirement allowance, to a beneficiary.

Speaking on "The Legislature and Education," George J. Hatfield, lieutenant governor of California, had the following to say:

"Another problem which confronts not only this Legislature, but all legislatures, is the problem of taxation — cost of government! . . . our expenditures must be sharply reduced, rather than increased.

"But I may disagree with some as to the method of achieving sound economy in state government. Certainly I disagree with those 'penny-wise and pound-foolish' disciples of economy who would ruthlessly slash educational appropriations to gain a temporary advantage—not realizing that they are piling up millions in future burdens and furture taxation by short-changing our youth and sending them out in the world unprepared to care for themselves or their dependents. . . .

"I am firmly in accord with the legislation sponsored by Senator Tickel to fix a minimum salary of $1,320 per year for any full-time teacher in our public school system; I am just as firmly opposed to any attempt to abolish the constitutional guarantees for our schools system. . . .

"I am opposed to any efforts, direct or indirect, to repeal or undermine our teachers' tenure system in California. . . .

"And because I believe that our teaching profession is vital to the welfare of all our people . . . I think that it is high time that the depression pay-cuts made in teachers' salaries be cancelled. I think it is time that we recognize that our investment in education is a phase of government which pays cash dividends. . . ."

# Directory of Campus Chapters

## DISTRICT NO. 1.

States: Washington, Oregon, Idaho, Montana.

FRED STETSON, *District Representative*, Professor of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.

NU—University of Washington
Francis F. Powers, Secretary, 114 Education Hall, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.

CHI—University of Oregon
Joseph Holaday, Secretary, School of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.

ALPHA GAMMA—State College of Washington
Russell H. Ainsworth, Secretary, Box 247, College Station, Pullman, Wash.

## DISTRICT NO. 2.

States: California, Nevada, Arizona, Utah, New Mexico.

L. L. STANDLEY, *District Representative*, Principal, Burbank Junior High School, Berkeley, Calif.

DELTA—Stanford University
S. Joseph De Brum, Secretary, Box No. 1163, Stanford University, Calif.

LAMBDA—University of California
Vaughn D. Seidel, Secretary, Haviland Hill, University of California, Berkeley, Calif.

ALPHA EPSILON—University of Southern California
Philip A. Libby, Secretary, Box No. 123, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, Calif.

ALPHA ZETA—University of Arizona
John F. Walker, Secretary, Bin-A, University Station, College of Education, Tucson, Ariz.

ALPHA OMICRON—Claremont Colleges
Carey S. Bliss, Secretary, Education Department, Harper Hall, Claremont Colleges, Claremont, Calif.

ALPHA UPSILON—University of Utah
W. Melvin Strong, Secretary, Stewart Training School, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah

ALPHA CHI—University of California at Los Angeles
Edwin Olmstead, Secretary, 405 Hilgard Avenue, Los Angeles, Calif.

## DISTRICT NO. 3.

States: Kansas, Missouri, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Texas.

JOHN H. AYDELOTTE, *District Representative*, The Department of the History and Philosophy of Education, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.

GAMMA—University of Missouri
F. Olin Capps, Secretary, University High School, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.

KAPPA—University of Kansas
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Beverley Nance, Secretary, Box No. 1642, University Station, Austin, Tex.

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F. F. Gaither, Treasurer, Box 213, Faculty Exchange, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Okla.

ALPHA DELTA—Kansas State College
C. V. Williams, Secretary, Department of Education, Kansas State College, Manhattan, Kan.

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C. O. Dahle, Secretary, College of Education, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Ia.

ETA—University of Minnesota
Robert Pace, Secretary, Room 208, Burton Hall, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

OMICRON—University of Nebraska
Charles A. Bowers, Secretary, 605 South 14th Street, Lincoln, Neb.

ALPHA THETA—University of North Dakota
Lawrence W. Hanson, Secretary, Box No. 546, University Station, Grand Forks, N. D.

ALPHA MU—Colorado State College of Education
Harold Drummond, Secretary, Colorado State College of Education, Greeley, Colo.

ALPHA SIGMA—University of Denver
Newell B. Walters, Secretary, 2045 S. Clarkson Ave., Denver, Colo.

## DISTRICT NO. 5.

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E. B. WETHEROW, *District Representative*, Superintendent of Schools, La Porte, Ind.

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Wayne Schomer, Secretary, Box 313, Union Building, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

ZETA—University of Chicago
Theodore D. Frost, Secretary, Graduate Education Building, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

PI—University of Illinois
Heber Rumble, Secretary, 102 University High School, Urbana, Ill.

SIGMA—Ohio State University
L. L. Waite, Secretary, Education Building, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

UPSILON—Northwestern University
William W. Wattenberg, Secretary, School of Education, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.

PHI—University of Wisconsin
Russell L. Moberly, Secretary, Box 183, Bascom Hall, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

OMEGA—University of Michigan
Robert E. Carson, Secretary, 4007 University High School, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

ALPHA IOTA—University of Cincinnati
L. G. Boeh, Secretary, 3619 Wabash Avenue, Cincinnati Ohio.

ALPHA NU—University of Kentucky
Louis Clifton, Secretary, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky.

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Byrne J. Horton, Secretary, Box 113, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

THETA—Cornell University
Malcolm B. Galbreath, 251 Goldwin Smith Hall, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

IOTA—Harvard University
Bert Rosen, Secretary, 6 Lawrence Hall, Kirkland Street, Cambridge, Mass.

XI—University of Pittsburgh
Clarence M. Long, Secretary, 310 State Hall, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

RHO—New York University
Douglas G. Graflin, Secretary, 373 Mamaroneck Avenue, White Plains, N. Y.

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Roderic D. Matthews, Secretary, Room 100, Bennett Hall, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

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Joseph Meister, Box 141, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.

ALPHA LAMBDA—Boston University
Allan Acomb, Secretary, School of Education, Boston University, 29 Exeter Street, Boston, Mass.

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Lauren Archibald, Secretary, School of Education, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N. J.

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Paul B. Gillen, Secretary, 3323 Rueckert Ave., Baltimore, Md.

ALPHA TAU—Pennsylvania State College
G. J. Free, Secretary, Care Summer Session Office, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.

ALPHA PHI—Syracuse University
Howard C. Allen, Secretary, School of Education, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y.

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States: Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Louisiana, Mississippi, Georgia, Alabama, Florida.

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PSI—Peabody College
Dudley T. Horton, Secretary, Peabody College, Nashville, Tenn.

ALPHA BETA—University of Virginia
Arthur M. Jarman, Secretary, Room D, Peabody Hall, University of Virginia, University, Va.

ALPHA KAPPA—University of Tennessee
A. D. Mueller, Secretary, Box No. 4226, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.

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J. A. Arnold, Secretary, Fern Hill School, Tacoma, Wash.

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States: California, Nevada, Arizona, Utah, New Mexico.

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Delta—Fresno, California
Norman Walsh, Secretary, Fresno High School, Fresno, Calif.

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Eta—Santa Barbara, California
Roy L. Soules, Secretary, 1235 Chapala, Santa Barbara, Calif.

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States: Kansas, Missouri, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Texas.

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Gamma—State of Kansas
E. K. Hillbrand, Secretary, Wichita University, Wichita, Kan.

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States: Missouri, Colorado, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Iowa, Minnesota.

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George A. Irvin, Secretary, State College of Education, Greeley, Colo.

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States: Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, Indiana, Ohio, West Virginia, Kentucky.

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DISTRICT NO. 6.

States: Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Connecticut, District of Columbia.

No Field Chapters in this District.

DISTRICT NO. 7.

States: Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Louisiana, Mississippi, Georgia, Alabama, Florida.

No Field Chapters in this District.

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